

Miss Jennie M. McIntosh
from Mrs. Jenny.

CHAMBERS'S

HISTORICAL AND MISCELLANEOUS
QUESTIONS

WITH ANSWERS

Embracing History, Science, Literature
Arts, &c.

By William Chambers, LL.D.



W. & R. CHAMBERS, LIMITED
LONDON AND EDINBURGH

1897

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Edinburgh :
Printed by W. & R. Chambers, Limited.

P R E F A C E.

THE present work is designed to fulfil an important purpose in EDUCATION—that of bringing clearly into view the leading facts which are supposed to be gained through a long course of instruction. Without proposing to supersede the elementary books usually employed, it offers a certain test of what is presumed to have been previously learned. With such a work in their hands, Schoolmasters, Tutors, Governesses, or Parents, may at once satisfy themselves as to the degree of knowledge on a variety of subjects attained by the young persons under their charge, and for whose intellectual culture they feel a special interest. At the same time—in this age of Competitive Examination—the work offers to candidates for Official Appointments the means of readily and perspicuously calling to remembrance answers to such questions in History, Science, Art. Literature, and

General Knowledge, as are likely to be asked of them ; thereby, perhaps, saving the reperusal of a multiplicity of books which they would otherwise have to consult and patiently study.

As regards the Answers to the Questions, every effort has been made to render them brief and of easy acquisition, in regular consecutive order according to subjects ; while the facts they present, based on the most recent authorities, are just those which, from their interest and importance, are expected to be less or more borne on the mind of every 'well-informed person' of either sex.

W. C.

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CHAMBERS'S

HISTORICAL QUESTIONS.

Introduction.

1. *What is History?*—History is a narrative of events extending over a considerable period.

2. *How has history been divided?*—Into sacred and profane history—another name for profane history being civil history, or the account of the rise and progress of civil society in different nations.

3. *What is Sacred History?*—That which is contained in the Holy Scriptures, or the Old and New Testaments.

4. *How else is history divided?*—For convenience, it is divided into Ancient, Medieval, and Modern history.

5. *How are the dates in history defined?*—Events which precede the Christian era are usually marked B.C., meaning so many years BEFORE CHRIST; and those events which occur afterwards are marked A.D., such being an abbreviation of ANNO DOMINI, the year of Our Lord.

6. *At what time does Ancient history end and Medieval history begin?*—At the dissolution of the Roman empire, 476 A.D.

7. *When does Medieval history end?*—About 1450 A.D., when modern history begins.

8. *What is the meaning of 'Medieval'?*—It signifies a middle era or period; instead of medieval history, we sometimes say the history of the 'middle ages.'

9. *What is a Slave?*—A slave is a person deprived of his civil rights, and who, being bought like one of the lower animals, is obliged to depend on the will of his owner.

10. *What are civil rights?*—The right which every one has by nature to possess his own person, to cultivate his mind, and to improve his condition by any honest line of industry—the enjoyment of such rights being called *freedom*.

11. *What were Serfs?*—Serfs were persons held in perpetual bondage, sometimes as domestic servants, but more frequently as rural labourers, who were sold along with the estates on which they lived. Serfdom, or some other form of slavery, was common in all ancient nations.

12. *What is the foundation of human society?*—The family system, consisting of a father, mother, and children; a nation is but a collection of families.

13. *What have been the chief forms of government?*—The patriarchal, monarchical, aristocratic, and democratic forms; also forms of a mixed variety.

14. *Describe the patriarchal form.*—The patriarchal form of government takes its name from two Greek words—*patria*, a family, and *arché*, authority or rule, and signifies, a government of families by one who is recognised as chief.

15. *What is a Clan?*—It is a tribe consisting of allied families who render obedience to a chieftain, to whom all claim some relationship.

16. *Explain the monarchical form of government.*—It is a government by a sovereign, who rules either under some restriction, or absolutely; the term monarch is from the Greek *monos*, one, and *archos*, a chief.

17. *What is a Despot?*—A monarch who rules by his own absolute will; the term *autocrat* has a similar meaning.

18. *What is an Emperor?*—A sovereign who, besides acting as ruler of a nation, commands its armies in person; but this distinction is now little regarded, the title of emperor being assumed by various sovereigns in preference to that of king.

19. *Explain the aristocratic form.*—It is a government by the principal persons in a state, so called from the Greek words *aristos*, the best, and *crateo*, to govern. Government by a few is called an *oligarchy*.

20. *Is the aristocratic a common form?*—No; there have been few governments purely aristocratic; in many instances, however, an aristocracy, consisting of a titled nobility, has been associated with the monarchical and democratic forms.

21. *Explain the democratic form.*—The democratic is a government by the whole people, so called from the Greek words *demos*, the populace, and *crateo*, to govern.

22. *What is a Republic?*—It is a government of the democratic form; at the head of such governments there is an elective public officer called a president.

23. *What is meant by a 'revolution in government?'*—It signifies a sudden change in the form of government, effected by some irregular means.

24. *What is meant by 'a reform in government?'*—It signifies a change effected by peaceful and regular means, as seems required by circumstances.

25. *What is 'a Demagogue?'*—A person who by oratory, and various mean arts, endeavours to be a popular leader; the epithet is from the Greek *demos*, the populace, and *ago*, to lead.

26. *What is anarchy?*—By anarchy is meant confusion in government, along with popular uproar.

27. *What is 'a Military Dictator?'*—He is a military officer, who in a time of confusion skilfully seizes on the supreme power, and dictatorially rules by means of the army under his command—such rule being usually accepted by the nation to preserve public order.

28. *What is a Constitutional Monarchy?*—It is a government of a mixed kind, consisting of a sovereign, an aristocracy, and a democracy—the rights of the whole being defined and secured by a mutual compact, called a *constitution*.

29. *To what state of society is a constitutional monarchy adapted?*—It is adapted only to a very advanced state of society, and had no existence in ancient times.

30. *What is meant by 'Ecclesiastical Government?'*—It signifies the government of affairs connected with the church—the word ecclesiastical being from the Greek *ecclesia*, an assembly or calling together.

31. *What is meant by 'a Theocracy?'*—It signifies a government under the immediate direction of God; the term is from the Greek *theos*, God, and *crateo*, to govern.

32. *What is meant by the 'Autonomy of States?'*—It signifies the right of a state to determine what shall be its own form of government; the term is from the Greek words *autos*, self, and *nomos*, law or rule.

33. *What is meant by 'a Union of States?'*—It signifies the thorough union of several states or kingdoms into one, according to mutual agreement. An example of this species of

union is that of England, Scotland, and Ireland, which form the United Kingdom.

34. *What is meant by 'a Federal Union?'*—It signifies a union of several states for certain general purposes, each state preserving its own independence, as far as local government is concerned ; the term is from the Latin *fœdus*, a league.

35. *What is 'a Parliament?'*—It is an assembly constituted by royal authority to consult on the affairs of the nation, and to aid in enacting laws for the general welfare ; the word *parliament* is from the French *parler*, to speak.

36. *What is meant by 'the Estates of the Realm?'*—It signifies the several departments of government concerned in legislation ; for example, the estates of the realm in the United Kingdom are three in number—the Sovereign, the House of Lords, and the House of Commons.

37. *What is meant by 'a Senate?'*—It is an assembly of senators or persons of distinction engaged in legislation ; the term is from the Latin *senat*, old, and originally meant a body of elders. In Great Britain, the Houses of Parliament are sometimes called the senate.

38. *What is meant by 'a Convention of Estates?'*—It signifies an assembly convened or brought together in some unusual emergency, without regular authority, to consult on national affairs. If recognised by the sovereign, the convention becomes a parliament.

39. *What is meant by Municipal Government?'*—It signifies the government of a city or district by a corporation of free citizens ; the term, which has sometimes an extended meaning, is from the Latin *municips*, one who enjoys the privileges of a freeman.

40. *What is 'a Corporation?'*—It is a body of persons incorporated by lawful authority to act as one individual, with power of permanent succession through the introduction of new members ; the term is from the Latin *corpus*, a body.

41. *What is 'a Colony?'*—It is a portion of a nation transplanted to a distant part of the world, but which continues under the supreme authority of the parent state—its inhabitants, called colonists, retaining all their civil rights and privileges ; the term is from the Latin *colo*, to cultivate.

42. *Is colonisation a thing of modern or ancient times?'*—It is as old as the origin of human society, for it was the destiny of man to go forth over the earth to cultivate and subdue it, and to people it with inhabitants. Ancient history presents many examples of nations arising out of small colonies.

Ancient History—the Hebrews.

1. *What is meant by 'Cosmogony'?*—It signifies the origin of the world, being from the Greek words, *cosmos*, the world, and *genos*, birth. The term *Genesis*, has a similar meaning.

2. *What is meant by a 'Prehistoric Period'?*—It signifies a period before that in which recorded history commences.

3. *What are the evidences of a 'prehistoric period'?*—The disclosures of geology point to an extremely remote period of which there is no account, and the discoveries of ancient objects of art offer evidences of similar import.

4. *What are aborigines?*—They are supposed to be the original inhabitants of a country and their descendants, but it is found in various instances that there were races of men who occupied the land previous to the so-called aborigines.

5. *What is meant by nomadic?*—It is a word from the Greek signifying pastoral, wandering, and is applied to tribes who live by feeding flocks and herds, and who wander about in an unsettled manner; notices of such occur in the Bible.

6. *When does history commence?*—Scripture history is usually reckoned to commence about 4004 B.C., but profane or civil history, so far as it can be authenticated, reaches only to about 1000 years B.C. The whole chronology of ancient times, however, is allowed to be very uncertain.

7. *With what part of the world does ancient history begin?*—Asia and the northern part of Africa.

8. *Which nations are first referred to?*—Hebrews, Babylonians, Assyrians, Chaldeans, Egyptians, Phœnicians, Medes, Persians, and Lydians—among all of whom civilisation and a knowledge of the arts prevailed at least 3000 years ago.

9. *Where was Mesopotamia?*—It formed the country lying between the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, the waters of which flow into the Persian Gulf; the Greek term *Mesopotamia* signifies the country between the rivers.

10. *Where was 'the plain of Shinar'?*—It was situated in Mesopotamia, in which and in the neighbouring countries the descendants of Noah, according to biblical record, founded the Babylonian, Assyrian, and Chaldean nations.

11. *What is meant by Semitic nations?*—Those nations which are supposed to be descended from Shem, one of the sons of Noah.

12. *Who were the Hebrews?*—They were a Semitic nation, called Hebrews, either from *Eber*, the great-grandson of Shem, or from Abraham, who was their progenitor.

13. *What was the country inhabited by Abraham?*—He dwelt in Mesopotamia, whence he emigrated about 2000 B.C. to the land of Canaan, on the Mediterranean Sea, called *Canaan* from a son of Ham, supposed to be the ancestor of the Canaanitish nation.

14. *Who was Isaac?*—He was the son of Abraham, and inheritor of his possessions. The sons of Isaac were Esau and Jacob, and it was by Jacob that the main line of the family was continued.

15. *What was the condition of life of Abraham and his immediate descendants?*—They possessed great flocks and herds, with which they moved about as patriarchs at the head of their tribes.

16. *Who were Jacob's sons?*—They were twelve in number—Reuben, Simeon, Levi, Judah, Dan, Naphtali, Gad, Asher, Issachar, Zebulun, Joseph, and Benjamin; Jacob had also a daughter named Dinah.

17. *What was the fate of Joseph?*—He was sold by his elder brothers to Midianitish merchants, who carried him as a slave to Egypt, about 1728 B.C. In Egypt, he attained to the dignity of a governor under Pharaoh, the ruling monarch.

18. *Who was Israel?*—Israel was a name adopted by Jacob in consequence of a remarkable event in his life, narrated in the thirty-second chapter of Genesis; the word *Israel* signifies 'a wrestler with God.' From this name, the Hebrew people have become known as Israelites.

19. *What was the fate of Israel and his family?*—Pressed by famine, they migrated to Egypt, where they were received and succoured by Joseph. Seventeen years after his arrival, Israel, the head of the family, died in Egypt.

20. *What were the tribes of Israel?*—They were the families of the sons of Israel and their descendants, and in time increased to be a vast body of people; each tribe, however, retaining a certain distinctive character.

21. *How were the tribes of Israel treated by the Egyptians?*—During the life of Joseph, and for some time afterwards, they were well treated; but at length the rulers of the country reduced them to a state of bondage or slavery, in which they suffered cruel oppression.

22. *Who was Moses?*—He was by birth an Israelite, being the son of Amram, of the tribe of Levi. Exposed as an infant

in a basket among the rushes of the Nile, he was found by the daughter of the king, and was reared and educated by her in all the learning of the Egyptians.

23. *Mention some circumstances in the life of Moses.*—Having slain an Egyptian overseer for maltreating a Hebrew slave, he fled to the deserts of Midian, where he was hospitably treated by Jethro the priest, and married his daughter, Zipporah. After staying several years in Midian, he returned to Egypt to act as a deliverer of the Israelites, and lead them to the ‘Promised Land.’

24. *What was the ‘Promised Land?’*—It was the land of Canaan, where the forefathers of the Israelites, Isaac and Jacob, had dwelt, and to which God had promised that they should return, and there found a great nation.

25. *How was this promise fulfilled?*—Vexed with the plagues brought on the land, the king, or Pharaoh, of Egypt allowed the Israelites to depart (1491 B.C.) towards the land of Canaan, under the guidance of Moses, who led them across the Red Sea, at a point supposed to be near the modern Suez—the place of this marvellous passage being still shewn to travellers.

26. *How long were the Israelites on the journey to the Promised Land?*—They spent forty years in the wildernesses of Arabia, during which time many remarkable events occurred, particularly at Mount Sinai, where the ten commandments were delivered by God to Moses.

27. *Did Moses reach the Promised Land?*—No ; he lived only to see it from the Mount of Nebo, where he died.

28. *What was the character of Moses?*—Besides being learned and sagacious, he possessed great calmness, disinterestedness, patience, perseverance, and meekness, coupled with keen energy, rapidity of action, and unflinching courage.

29. *What is the Pentateuch?*—Such is the name given to the first five books of the Old Testament ; the word signifying in Greek, *five books*.

30. *Who is reputed to have written the Pentateuch?*—The writing of the Pentateuch has been ascribed to Moses ; and the books of which it is composed are accordingly called ‘the Mosaic record.’ Whether or not Moses wrote the entire Pentateuch, it is certain that he was the organiser and lawgiver of the Hebrew nation, and he must be ever regarded as one of the greatest men of ancient times.

31. *Who was Aaron?*—He was the elder brother of Moses, and the first high-priest of the Israelites.

32. *What was a prophet?* A prophet was a man inspired

by God, to utter predictions of future events, also to instruct and admonish in spiritual things.

33. *Who were the Levites?*—They were descendants of Levi, and formed a tribe, the members of which were set apart for service in the sanctuary ; as such, they acted as teachers, and took charge of the sacred vessels and books. Their revenue consisted chiefly of an annual tithe contributed by the other tribes.

34. *What is meant by 'tithe?'*—It signifies a tenth part of anything ; such as the tenth part of annual crops, and of the increase of flocks and herds.

35. *Why was Canaan called Palestine?*—It was so called from the *Philistines*, who possessed a portion of the country.

36. *When did the name Judea originate?*—After the return of the inhabitants of the kingdom of Judah from the Babylonish captivity ; and at first it designated only that portion of Palestine peopled by them, but gradually, as they extended their settlements, the name was applied in a loose way to the whole country. Strictly, however, under the Romans, Judea designated the territory comprised under the ancient kingdom of Judah.

37. *Who was Joshua?*—He was the leader of the Israelites, whom he conducted into the Promised Land about 1430 B. C., which he conquered and portioned among the several tribes.

38. *What was the original form of government among the Israelites?*—Considered politically, it was a federal republic consisting of twelve tribes ; but considered religiously, it was a theocracy, or government by God—that is, the laws were regarded as divinely enjoined, and the priesthood naturally became their interpreters and administrators.

39. *Did the tribes remain united?*—No ; soon after the conquest and partition of Canaan, they seem to have lapsed into a kind of tribal self-dependence and anarchy, and were only saved from ruin by rulers, called Judges.

40. *Who were the Judges?*—They were valiant men and women who liberated their country from their oppressors, and afterwards exercised rule for the general benefit ; such as the prophetess Deborah, Gideon, Jephthah, and Samson.

41. *Who was Samuel?*—He was the last of the Judges or chiefs of the Hebrew republic, and the greatest Hebrew since the days of Moses. Samuel marks a new era in the development of the religious life of the nation.

42. *When did the Hebrew Monarchy begin?*—It succeeded the period of the Judges, and began with Saul, who was the first king (about 1080 B. C.).

43. *Who was David?*—He was the ninth and youngest son of Jesse, of the tribe of Judah. Attaining distinction by slaying Goliath of Gath, a gigantic Philistine, he was appointed king, or successor of Saul, and ruled with great wisdom for a period of forty years (1055 to 1015 B.C.).

44. *Who was Solomon?*—He was the son and successor of David, and noted for his wisdom and taste for magnificent works of art; he built the celebrated Temple of Jerusalem, and also the city of Tadmor, which became afterwards known as Palmyra—a name signifying ‘the city of palm-trees.’ This once splendid city is now in ruins.

45. *When was the Hebrew monarchy divided?*—In the reign of Rehoboam, successor of Solomon, 975 B.C., when the country was divided into the kingdom of Judah, consisting of the tribes of Judah and Benjamin, and the kingdom of Israel, consisting of the other ten tribes. In this state the country continued until the termination of its independence.

46. *When did the kingdom of Israel terminate?*—It was put an end to under Hoshea, 720 B.C., by the Assyrian monarch Salmanassar, who, after taking the capital Samaria, carried the principal inhabitants into captivity.

47. *Did these captives ever return to their own country?*—No; they in all probability mingled with the surrounding population in the regions where they were settled, but their fate is uncertain, and hence they are usually spoken of as ‘the lost ten tribes.’

48. *When did the kingdom of Judah terminate?*—Under the rule of King Zedekiah, when the Jews were conquered by Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, who, with a powerful army, took Jerusalem, 588 B.C., and carried the principal part of the inhabitants to Babylon.

49. *What is this event called in Jewish history?*—It is called ‘the Babylonish captivity,’ and is pathetically lamented in the poetry of the Hebrews.

50. *Who were Isaiah and Jeremiah?*—They were two of the Hebrew prophets; and the books which bear their name are among the grandest of the inspired writings. Along with these lofty prophetic books may be associated that of Ezekiel, a Hebrew prophet who lived among the Babylonian captives, and endeavoured to inspire them with hopes of recovering their liberty, and of attaining prosperity under a promised Messiah.

51. *What is meant by Messiah?*—It is a Hebrew word signifying *Anointed* (consecration by anointing being an ancient

usage), and is applied in the Old Testament to the great Deliverer and Saviour whom the Jews expected to be sent by God.

52. *Who was Daniel?*—He was one of the Hebrew captives at Babylon, and, by his great wisdom, gained the favour of Cyrus, who at Daniel's intercession liberated his countrymen, and allowed them to depart.

53. *Did all the Jewish captives at Babylon avail themselves of the permission to depart?*—No ; only about 40,000 persons returned to Palestine.

54. *How long were the inhabitants of the kingdom of Judah in captivity?*—Reckoning from the capture of Jerusalem and the carrying off of Zedekiah, about 50 years ; but from a previous invasion of Nebuchadnezzar (606 B. C.), about 70 years.

55. *Did the Jews resume their independence as a nation on their return from captivity?*—No ; their country had been incorporated with the Persian empire ; but they rebuilt the temple at Jerusalem, and exercised their religious worship.

56. *What was the subsequent fate of the Jews?*—They were exposed to many vicissitudes in contending against Egyptians, Syrians, and others—their most heroic exertions being under the Maccabees.

57. *Who were the Maccabees?*—They were leaders of the Jewish nation—the first of them was Judas Maccabeus, who led the national hosts to victory against the Syrians ; after his death, his brothers completed the deliverance of the people, 145 B. C. The heroism of the Maccabees is considered to be a grand feature in Jewish history.

58. *When did the Jews submit to the Romans?*—In the year 63 B. C., when Jerusalem was captured by Pompey, and the country put under Roman governors ; the people, however, were still allowed to exercise their religious observances.

59. *When was Jesus Christ born?*—Jesus was born at Bethlehem in Judea, during the governorship of Herod, in the reign of the Roman emperor Augustus ; the exact period is believed to have been four years before what is usually called the Christian era.

60. *What is the meaning of the word Christ?*—It is from the Greek, and signifies *Anointed*, and therefore corresponds with the Hebrew term *Messiah*.

61. *Did the Jews remain satisfied under the Roman sway?*—No ; they endeavoured to recover their independence by means of an insurrection, in which they were unsuccessful, and Jerusalem was captured by Titus, a Roman general.

62. *When was Jerusalem captured by Titus?*—In the year

70 A. D., when the Temple was utterly destroyed, the city laid in ruins, and the people scattered.

63. *Were the Jews utterly dispersed at this time?*—No ; there remained a residue in the country until 135 A. D., when, in consequence of a fresh insurrection, they were finally dispersed, and have ever since been exiles in all parts of the earth.

64. *For what is the civilised world indebted to the Jews?*—For their religion, which is the basis of Christianity, and for their careful preservation of the books of the Old Testament.

65. *What were the distinguishing features of the Jewish religion?*—Along with certain ceremonial observances, and the expectation of a coming Messiah or Saviour, the Jewish faith consisted in a belief in one supreme being, God, the creator and preserver, invisible, eternal, almighty, and of infinite wisdom.

66. *What is Monotheism?*—It is the belief in one God, as professed by the Hebrews, and is so called from the Greek *monos*, one, and *theos*, god.

67. *Were the Hebrews singular in their monotheistic belief?*—Yes ; they seem to have been the first people who attained to a correct knowledge of God ; all the nations about them were polytheists and idolators.

68. *What is a Polytheist?*—A person who believes in many gods ; the term is from the Greek, *polys*, many, and *theos*, god.

69. *What is an Idolator?*—A person who worships idols or representatives of some imaginary being.

70. *Did the Hebrews adhere uniformly to monotheism?*—No ; we are told by the Scriptures that they had a constant tendency to lapse into idolatry, but were ‘turned again’ unto God by the remonstrances of the prophets.

71. *Who were the Pharisees?*—They formed a sect of the Jews, and assumed that by a punctilious attention to ceremonies, they were more righteous than others ; the term *Pharisee* is from the Hebrew *parash*, to separate.

72. *Who were the Sadducees?*—They were a certain class of believers among the Jews, who rejected the doctrine of future rewards and punishments, and whose tenets inculcated the strictest morals ; they derived their designation from Sadoc, a Jewish rabbi (200 B. C.).

73. *What is meant by ‘Gentiles?’*—It is the name given in the New Testament to heathen nations ; and is derived from the Latin, *gens*, a nation or race.

74. *What is Revelation?*—It is the revealing or discovery of anything, but more especially signifies the revealing of spiritual truths by God to man, through the agency of inspired prophets—the whole Bible being hence called Revelation, or the revealed will of God.

75. *Who was Flavius Josephus?*—He was a learned Jew of the first century, who wrote a History of the Wars of the Jews, in which he gives an account of the siege and capture of Jerusalem; he likewise composed a work on Jewish Antiquities; both works, written in Hebrew and Greek, have been translated into English.

Ancient History — the Babylonians, Assyrians, Egyptians, and others.

1. *Who were the Babylonians?*—They were the inhabitants of Babylonia, a country taking its name from the city of Babel, or Babylon, built on the Euphrates by Nimrod.

2. *Who were the Assyrians?*—They were the inhabitants of the country north of Babylonia, called Assyria from Asshur, the son of Shem, who built the city of Nineveh, on the Tigris.

3. *At what time were the Babylonian and Assyrian nations founded?*—About 2500 B.C. The period of their greatest glory was about 1000 B.C., when their power was considerably extended over the East, and when Babylon and Nineveh were populous and splendid cities.

4. *Where was Chaldea?*—It was a district near the head of the Persian Gulf, which became absorbed in Babylonia, but little is distinctly known about it. In ancient history, the name Chaldeans is given to a learned and priestly class of men among the Assyrians and Babylonians, who were skilled in astronomical knowledge.

5. *Of what religion were the Assyrians and Babylonians?*—It was essentially a worship of the powers of nature, among which the sun held a prominent place. These powers were adored under a multitude of forms and emblems; the Assyrians and Babylonians seem also to have worshipped idols representing Swiftmess, Strength, Intelligence, and other qualities, as is shewn by various ancient sculptures.

6. *Mention some of the ancient sculptures of Assyria.*—The figure of a lion with the head of a man, and great spread-out



Winged Lion.

wings, also the figure of a man with the head of an eagle—examples of which figures, brought from the ruins of Nineveh, are seen in various museums.

7. *Who was Semiramis?*—She is said to have been a powerful female sovereign of Assyria, but the account of her is perhaps mythical.

8. *Who was Sardanapalus?*—He was a luxurious sovereign of the Assyrian empire. He dwelt at Nineveh, where, being attacked by Medes, Babylonians, and others, he died by setting fire to his palace, and burning all it contained, 783 B.C.

9. *Who was Sennacherib?*—He was one of the successors of Sardanapalus as king of Assyria; he endeavoured to extend his conquests over Egypt and Judæa, but both countries were delivered by the miraculous destruction of his host before the walls of Jerusalem (2 Kings xix.).

10. *Who were the Medes?*—They were a powerful nation on the east of Assyria, and along with the Babylonians, they captured and destroyed Nineveh, about 625 B.C. The Medes had previously subdued the Persians; but these having revolted under Cyrus, gained the ascendancy, and commenced a series of extraordinary conquests.

11. *Why are unchangeable laws said to resemble the laws of the Medes and Persians?*—Because in Daniel, chap. vi. 8, it is expressly stated that the 'law of the Medes and Persians

altereth not'—in other words, the Persian monarch was anciently thought to be infallible.

12. *Who was Cræsus?*—He was king of Lydia, a country of Asia Minor, and renowned for his prodigious wealth. Misled by evil counsel, he levied war against Cyrus, was defeated, and his kingdom incorporated with Persia, 546 B.C. His wealth has given rise to the saying 'as rich as Cræsus.'

13. *Who was Belshazzar?*—He was king of the united empire of Assyria and Babylonia, which was conquered by Cyrus 538 B.C., and added to the already vast Persian empire, which was now the greatest that had existed in the world. Cyrus died 529 B.C.

14. *What was the ancient name of Persia?*—The greater part of Persia was included in a large region extending into the centre of Asia, and called Ariana, or Airyana, from which Iran, the modern native name of Persia, is derived. From this region it is believed that in very remote times successive swarms of colonists migrated and peopled the greater part of Europe, and also India. These peoples are therefore spoken of as the Aryan races, and their languages are found to have a family-likeness.

15. *Who was Cambyses?*—He was the son and successor of Cyrus; maniacal and imperious, he conquered Egypt, and after a reign of a few years, died 521 B.C.

16. *Who was Darius I.?*—He was chosen successor to Cambyses; and under him the walls of Babylon were destroyed.

17. *What was the extent of the Persian empire in the reign of Darius?*—It stretched from Egypt to India, and comprehended the whole of Palestine, Phœnicia, Lydia, Arabia, Media, Babylonia, and Assyria—all parts of this overgrown empire being ruled with despotic violence, and subjected to excessive exactions.

18. *Who was Zoroaster?*—He was a sage who originated, or, more properly, remodelled, the religion professed in Iran, or Persia, and which is now known as the religion of the Parsees.

19. *Describe the religion taught by Zoroaster.*—It embraced a belief in two opposite principles, good and evil. The principle of good was personified as Ormuzd, and the principle of evil as Ahriman. The direct objects of worship were the sun, light, and fire, as manifestations of the good principle.

20. *What is meant by 'the god Baal?'*—Baal, or Bel, was the name of a god who personified the sun or vivifier of nature, and was worshipped by various ancient nations.

21. *What city was named from Baal?*—Baalbek, a city in

Syria, which was afterwards called by the Greeks Heliopolis—from *Helios*, the sun, and *polis*, a city. Like many other cities in the East, Baalbek is now in ruins.

22. *Who were the Magi?*—They were priests of the Persian form of worship, and lighted fires in honour of Baal on the tops of mountains, as part of their religious observances.

23. *When did Darius I., king of Persia, die?*—He died 485 B.C., having, five years previously, been defeated at Marathon, in an attempt to subdue Greece.

24. *What was Persepolis?*—It was the chief city of Persia, and was adorned with many fine buildings, as is still seen by its magnificent ruins; its site is a few miles north of Shiraz, east of the Persian Gulf.

25. *Who was Xerxes?*—He was one of the sons of Darius, and succeeded to his power; he also attempted the conquest of Greece, and was likewise defeated; he died 464 B.C.

26. *Who was Artaxerxes?*—He was a son and successor of Xerxes, and is believed to be the 'Ahasuérus' mentioned in Scripture. Under his descendant, Darius III., the Persian empire was conquered by Alexander the Great, who also made himself master of Parthia, Phœnicia, Egypt, Syria, and other countries, 332 to 330 B.C.

27. *In what year did Alexander the Great make his triumphal entrance into Babylon?*—In the year 331 B.C.; but Babylon was already almost in ruins, and has never recovered.

28. *Who were the Parthians?*—They were a people of Asia, subdued by Alexander the Great, and who are renowned for their adroitness in shooting with bows and arrows on horseback while retreating; weapons thus shot or thrown backwards are spoken of as 'Parthian darts.'

29. *Who were the Phœnicians?*—They were the inhabitants of Phœnicia, a country on the Mediterranean, adjoining Palestine; and were noted for their mercantile pursuits. They had several important seaports, including Tyre and Sidon, and are said to have visited the British Islands.

30. *Where was the Tarshish of Scripture?*—It is believed to have been a district and city in the south of Spain, facing the Atlantic, called Tartessus by the Greeks and Romans. Under the name Tarshish, this district formed the limit of the western world as known to the Hebrews.

31. *Who were the Egyptians?*—They were the inhabitants of Egypt, called by the Hebrews Mizraim, which consisted chiefly of the valley of the Nile. They seem to have been

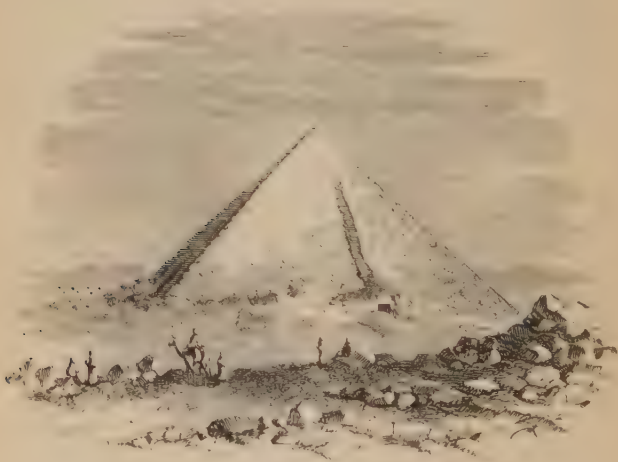
allied to the Semitic races, on the one hand, and to the Negro races on the other.

32. *When does the history of Egypt commence?*—About the same time as that of Assyria, 2500 B.C.; but some make it much earlier.

33. *Who were the Pharaohs?*—The title Pharaoh was equivalent to king, and was given to a long series of sovereigns of different dynasties in Egypt. The Pharaoh in whose reign the Israelites departed from Egypt, is supposed to have been Thothmes III.

34. *Who was Memnon?*—He was a celebrated Egyptian, commemorated by a gigantic sitting figure in stone, which, by some internal peculiarity of construction, gave forth mysterious sounds; the remains of this remarkable figure still exist near Thebes.

35. *Who was Cheops?*—He is said to have been the founder of the first or Great Pyramid.



The Pyramids.

36. *What are the Pyramids?*—They are huge structures of masonry, with a square basis, terminating in a point, and are believed to have been erected as monumental tombs of the

Pharaohs ; these wonderful buildings are believed to be from three thousand to four thousand years old.

37. *What are hieroglyphics?*—A kind of writing in use among the ancient Egyptians, and found engraved on the oldest monuments ; the characters consist of figures of animals and other objects, and represent ideas ; a key to their meaning has been found in recent times.

38. *Which were the chief cities of ancient Egypt?*—Memphis, in Middle Egypt, near the modern city of Cairo, and Thebes, in Upper Egypt, at both which cities there were magnificent temples and other buildings.

39. *Who was Sesostris?*—He was one of the greatest of the Pharaohs, and is celebrated in various legends and sculptures as having achieved vast conquests and executed many great works and improvements.

40. *What was the religion of the Egyptians?*—They were polytheists, and worshipped a number of gods, such as Ammon, Apis, Isis, Osiris, and others. They seem to have had a great regard for a particular kind of beetle, which, copied as a gem, they wore about their persons, and wrapped up with their mummies.

41. *Under what forms were the Egyptian gods worshipped?*—Ammon was represented by the figure of a man with the twisted horns of a ram—from which is derived the term *ammonite*—now given to fossil shells twisted like a horn. Apis, the chief divinity, was a live bull, black, with certain white marks. From being accustomed to the sacred bull of the Egyptians, the Israelites seem to have lapsed into the temporary idolatry of the golden calf. It is thought that the sun, the fruitfulness of the earth, and the flocks and herds which constituted the principal wealth of a nomadic people, were emblematised in the various Egyptian gods.

42. *Who was Pasht?*—She was one of the inferior deities of the Egyptians.

43. *What is a mummy?*—It is any dead animal or human body dried, embalmed, and wrapped up for preservation in pyramids and tombs. Some of these mummies have been brought to Europe, and are to be seen in museums.



Pasht.

44. *What was the state of advancement in the arts in Egypt?*—Great advances were made in the arts of building, carving, manufactures of different kinds, agriculture, and sundry refined usages; but slavery prevailed, and learning was confined to certain castes.

45. *What are castes?*—Certain orders of people who are by law and usage fixed to a particular station in life, such as a caste of labourers, a caste of soldiers, a caste of priests, a caste of rulers, and so on.

46. *What was it that broke down the odious systems of slavery and caste in ancient times?*—It was Christianity—the beneficent principles of the Gospel—which held all men to be equal in the sight of God.

47. *When did the Egyptian power terminate?*—The nation ceased to be independent in the year 525 B.C., when it was annexed to the Persian empire, which from 332 to 330 B.C. was conquered by Alexander the Great.

48. *Who was Alexander the Great?* He was the son of Philip, king of Macedon, and completed the conquest of Greece, after which he extended his conquests into Asia and Africa. By means of these conquests he introduced a knowledge of the arts and language of Greece into Egypt, Assyria, and other distant countries. Among his various great works he founded the city of Alexandria, in Egypt.

49. *Where was Macedon?*—It was a small country lying to the north of Greece, now constituting part of Turkey in Europe. The city of Pella was the capital of Macedon.

50. *What was the 'Macedonian phalanx?'*—It was a square and solid battalion of 8000 soldiers, with their shields and pikes so united as to present an almost impenetrable wall of armour.

51. *What was the name of the celebrated horse of Alexander the Great?*—It was Bucephalus; this animal, of great strength and beauty, would suffer no one to mount him, until Alexander leaped on his back, and ever afterwards the animal carried him through his campaigns. Bucephalus died of a wound, and was buried with marked honour.

52. *When did Alexander the Great die?*—He died in the year 323 B.C., in returning from the conquest of a part of India. After his death, divine honours were paid to him in Egypt and Greece. His body was consigned to a golden coffin, and entombed in a stone sarcophagus at Alexandria.

53. *What became of the great Asiatic provinces acquired by Alexander?*—At his death, they were divided among his

generals, and formed independent kingdoms until subdued by the Roman power.

54. *Who was Mithridates?*—There were several kings of that name who ruled over Pontus, Armenia, and some other Asiatic countries which had assumed independence after the death of Alexander the Great. The chief and last of the name was Mithridates the Great, who was first subdued by the Roman general, Lucullus (famed for his luxurious living), and afterwards stripped of his sovereignty by Pompey. Soon after this event, Mithridates killed himself, 68 B.C.

55. *Who were the Seleucidæ?*—They were descendants of Seleucus Nicanor, one of the generals of Alexander the Great, who invested him with the government of Babylonia and Media. At the death of Alexander, Seleucus established himself as king of Syria, and this kingdom of the Seleucidæ continued until it was extinguished by Pompey, and added, with other shattered portions of the Greek empire in the east, to the dominions of Rome.

56. *Who was Antiochus Epiphanes?*—He was one of the Seleucidæ, infamous for those oppressions of the Jews which caused them to revolt under the heroic Maccabees. He died 164 B.C. Of him and his predecessor Antiochus III., there are notices in the First Book of Maccabees, and the fate of the family is referred to in the eleventh chapter of the Book of Daniel.

57. *Who were the Ptolemies?*—They were Greek kings of Egypt, commencing at the death of Alexander. The series of Ptolemies, thirteen in number, terminated with the triumph of the Roman power.

58. *What was the condition of Egypt under the Ptolemies?*—It was generally prosperous, more particularly during the rule of the first three Ptolemies, who were patrons of learning, and, under whom, the Alexandrian school became famous.

59. *What was the Alexandrian school?*—It was the system of philosophy and general learning which sprung up at Alexandria, and was encouraged by Ptolemy Philadelphus, who founded the extensive library and museum of Alexandria; by these means Alexandria rivalled Athens, and was one of the greatest seats of instruction in ancient times.

60. *What was the Pharos of Alexandria?*—It was a celebrated light-house on the island of Pharos, near Alexandria, considered one of the wonders of the world; it was erected 300 B.C. The term *Pharos* is hence sometimes used for light-house; and hence also the French term *Phare*.

Ancient History—Greece, its Legends and Mythology.

1. *Where was Greece situated?*—It was a small country in the south of Europe, consisting chiefly of a peninsula—the Peloponnesus, some territory north of the peninsula, and several islands; the name anciently given to the whole country was Hellas.

2. *How did the name Greece originate?*—Our term Greece is from *Græcia*, the name first used by the Romans, probably from the small tribe *Graikoi*, with whom they had become acquainted at an early period. The people of Greece called themselves Hellenes, which name till this day they prefer.

3. *Who were the Pelasgians?*—They are assumed to have been a race of primitive settlers in Greece and adjoining countries, but nothing is known with certainty regarding them.

4. *Of what do the early accounts of Hellas or Greece consist?*—They consist chiefly of mythological legends and fables, narrated by poets, particularly Homer and Hesiod.

5. *What is Mythology?*—It is a system of fables or myths—a *myth* being a fable or story invented to explain some circumstance of which there exists no proper account.

6. *What was the particular nature of the Greek mythology?*—It was composed of a vast variety of legends concerning imaginary personages represented by sculptured figures, which were set up publicly as objects of veneration.

7. *Had the Greeks any knowledge of a Supreme Being, such as that possessed by the Hebrews?*—There is no conclusive evidence of their having had any such knowledge; though they spoke of Zeus as the sovereign of the universe, they were practically polytheists, and offered sacrifices in temples to numerous gods, demigods, and goddesses, believing these to exercise a control over human affairs.

8. *What is meant by 'Hero worship'?*—It is a system of paying honours to heroes who have distinguished themselves by their valour, or some other estimable quality; and it is believed that this system, carried to an excess, in which deceased heroes were clothed with divine attributes, formed a foundation to much of the Grecian and Roman mythology.

The raising of a mortal to the rank of a god was called his *apotheosis*.

9. *Who was Deucalion?*—According to the Greek myth, he was a person who saved himself and his wife in an ark which he built, when all Hellas was submerged by a flood caused by Zeus, which lasted nine days. By Deucalion and his wife Pyrrha, the earth was said to have been repopled.

10. *What did the Greeks mean by the 'Golden Age?'*—They had a fanciful notion that the history of the world was divided into ages, the first of which was the *Golden Age*, when there was universal goodness, happiness, and abundance; after which came successively the silver, bronze, and iron ages—in this last there being war, rapine, crime, and every sort of misery.

11. *What was the Argonautic Expedition?*—It was a notable event in the legendary history of Greece, and was undertaken by a number of heroes under the command of a leader called Jason; the object was to bring a golden fleece from Colchis, which was there hanging on a tree in the grove of Mars, guarded by a sleepless dragon. Those who engaged in this enterprise, which proved successful, are called the Argonauts, from having sailed in the ship *Argo*.

12. *Who was Hercules?*—He was a mortal of godlike character, the ideal of human perfection and bodily strength, whose life was devoted to the performance of great and virtuous deeds; as the most celebrated hero of the Greek mythology, there are innumerable legends descriptive of his courageous and patriotic actions, some of which are best known as 'the labours of Hercules.'

13. *What were 'the Labours of Hercules?'*—They were twelve in number: 1. He killed a furious lion by tearing its jaws with his hands; 2. He killed the Lernæan hydra, a frightful serpent with a number of heads; 3. He caught alive an enormous wild boar; 4. He pursued and seized a large and fleet stag, which had brazen feet and golden horns; 5. He killed certain foul birds which lived on human flesh; 6. He, in one day, cleaned out the stable of Augeas, king of Elis, which sheltered three thousand oxen, and had not been purified for thirty years—this feat being performed by sending the river Alpheus through the stable; 7. He brought alive to the Peloponnesus the bull of Crete, which breathed fire from its nostrils; 8. He killed Diomedes, an infamous tyrant, and carried off his mares; 9. He killed the monster, Geryon, and brought away his herds to Argos; 10. He conquered the queen of the Amazons, a nation of female warriors, and brought away her girdle; 11. He descended to Tartarus, and dragged Cerberus,

a ferocious dog with three heads, from beneath the throne of Pluto; 12. He killed the dragon which watched over the gardens of the Hesperides, and brought away the golden apples.—By the Greeks, Hercules was called Heracles, and they styled his descendants the Heracleidæ.

14. *What is meant by the 'Pillars of Hercules?'*—According to the myth, Hercules clove asunder a mountain, which closed the Mediterranean, and so opened that sea to the Atlantic. The remains of the mountain are Calpe, on the European, and Abyla, on the African side of the Strait, and these two heights are denominated the columns or pillars of Hercules.

15. *What was Atlantis?*—It was a fabulous island in the Atlantic Ocean, lying off the Pillars of Hercules, from which the Atlantic Ocean is said to take its name.

16. *Who was Amphitryon?*—He was one of the legendary heroes of Greece, respecting whom there are some amusing fables, particularly one in which Jupiter is represented as having personated Amphitryon while he was some days absent from home. This incident, which makes it appear as if Amphitryon was in two places at once, has, with some other particulars, afforded a prolific theme for dramatists in both ancient and modern times. Some circumstances in the history of this fabulous hero have given the name Amphitryon to any courteous host.

17. *What was the Trojan war?*—According to the poet Homer, it was a war against the city of Ilium, or Troy, in Asia-Minor, and was caused by Paris, son of King Priam, carrying away Helen, wife of the Spartan, Menelaus. According to the legend, the Greeks recovered Helen, and destroyed Troy. The date of this doubtful event is 1184 B. C.

18. *Who was Ulysses?*—He was a sagacious and artful Greek, who entered Troy in disguise, and stole away a statue of Minerva, called the Palladium; there being a belief that the city would remain invincible so long as it possessed this famed statue, which had been the gift of Jupiter.

19. *Who was Nestor?*—He was a venerable old man, renowned for his wisdom, who acted as counsellor to the Grecian chiefs at the siege of Troy.

20. *Who was Achilles?*—He was the son of Peleus and Thetis, a sea-nymph, who dipped him in the river Styx, and so made him invulnerable in all parts except the heel, by which she held him. As a young and warlike hero, he assisted at the siege of Troy, on which occasion he bore a celebrated shield made by Vulcan. Achilles was killed by a wound in

the heel, from which circumstance the tendon of the leg above the heel is usually called 'the tendon Achilles.'

21. *Who was Æneas?*—He was son of Anchises and Venus, who married Creusa, daughter of Priam, and fought gallantly in defending Troy. At the destruction of the city, he lost his wife, and retired, bearing the aged Anchises on his shoulders; he had two sons named Ascanius and Julus.

22. *Who was Cassandra?*—She was daughter of Priam and sister of Paris. The gods endowed her with the gift of prophecy; but she having given offence to Apollo, he, in revenge, put on her the condemnation that her prophecies would not be believed. Her prophetic warnings concerning the capture of Troy were consequently disregarded.

23. *Who was Penelope?*—She was the wife of Ulysses, and mother of Telemachus. During the long wanderings of Ulysses after the fall of Troy, and when he was believed to be dead, Penelope was importuned to marry again, but she put off her suitors on the pretext that she must first weave a web as a shroud for Laertes, her aged father-in-law. To protract the time, she undid by night the portion of the web she had woven during the day; and at length Ulysses returned. From this legend, any task apparently endless, is said to resemble 'Penelope's web.'

24. *Who was Calypso?*—She was the daughter of Atlas, and inhabited a remote woody island in the ocean, on which Ulysses was shipwrecked. She promised him immortality if he would marry her; this he refused to do, and finally she was forced to let him depart; being inconsolable, Calypso died of grief.

25. *Who was Circe?*—She was a famous sorceress, who, according to Homer, transformed two-and-twenty of the companions of Ulysses into swine; Ulysses, however, by means of a drug obtained from Mercury, remained uninjured, and induced Circe to disenchant his comrades. Other fables are related of this clever but malignant goddess.

26. *What was a dragon?*—In the Grecian and other legends, it was a large and ferocious serpent with feet, and that spouted fire from its mouth.

27. *Who were the Centaurs?*—They were a savage race of beings, formed of the upper part



Centaur.

of a man and the body of a horse, who inhabited forests and mountains, and had various encounters with Hercules.

28. *Who were the Cyclopes?*—They belonged to the race of the Titans; the most prominent of them was Polyphemus, a monster with one eye in the centre of his forehead, who lived in a cave, and devoured human beings.

29. *Who were the Titans?*—They were an early race of gods, and are represented as being the sons and daughters of Uranus (heaven) and Ge (earth).

30. *Who was Atlas?*—He was one of the Titans; he married Pleione, daughter of Oceanus, and became the father of the Pleiades. As leader of the Titans, he attempted to storm the heavens, for which audacity he was condemned to support for ever the vault of heaven on his shoulders. He is usually represented bearing up the globe.

31. *What was the myth concerning Pelion and Ossa?*—Pelion and Ossa are two mountains in Thessaly, which the Titans are said by the poets to have piled one on the other, to aid them in climbing to the dwellings of the gods, with whom they were at war.

32. *Who was Saturn?*—He was one of the Titans, who had six children—Vesta, Ceres, Juno, Neptune, Pluto, and Jupiter. Jupiter conquered the ruling Titans by his thunderbolts, and imprisoned them in Tartarus. Saturn was called in Greek Cronos, latterly supposed to be the same as Chronos, or the god of Time, and was represented under the figure of an old man with wings, holding a scythe in one hand and a serpent with its tail in its mouth in the other.

33. *Who was Pluto?*—He became ruler of Hades, or the world of shades. His wife was Proserpine, whom he had carried off while gathering flowers. The pair are represented sitting on a throne, wearing crowns; Pluto holding two keys in his hand, to signify that he is warden of the dead.



Jupiter.

34. *Who were the Olympic gods?*—They were gods and goddesses who dwelt on the heights of Mount Olympus, and were twelve in number;

the following were their Roman names, by which they are best known.

(1.) JUPITER, or Jove, the chief of all the gods, who is represented as seated on a throne amidst clouds, with thunderbolts in his right hand, a sceptre in his left, and an eagle at his side.

(2.) NEPTUNE, second in power only to Jupiter, who was the god of the Sea and of Earthquakes; he is represented as seated in a shell-chariot drawn by sea-horses, a crown on his head, and a trident in his hand. His wife was Amphitrite, queen of the sea.

(3.) APOLLO, son of Jupiter, was the god of Prophecy, Music, and Song; he is represented as a handsome young man in flowing garments, with a lyre and bow in his hand. Under the name Phœbus, he is symbolic of the sun.

(4.) VULCAN was the god of Fire, and a great artificer in metals; one of his performances was that of forging the thunderbolts of Jupiter; he is represented working at an anvil in the volcano of Mount Etna.

(5.) MARS was the god of War, and delighted in slaughter; he is represented as an armed man in a chariot, with the goddess Bellona at his side.

(6.) MERCURY was the god of Eloquence, the messenger of the gods, and patron of knavery; he is represented with wings on his cap and ankles, and with a wand or caduceus in his hand.

(7.) JUNO was the wife of Jupiter; she is represented as a majestic female seated in a car drawn by peacocks, with two Cupids flying over them.

(8.) MINERVA was the goddess of Wisdom and unrelenting Force; she wears a helmet and breast-plate, carries a spear in her right hand, while with the left she holds a shield.

(9.) DIANA, a sister of Apollo, was the goddess of Hunting, and is armed with a bow and arrows. Under the name of Cynthia, she is goddess of the Moon.

(10.) VENUS was the goddess of Love and Beauty, and had a son, Cupid, who with his bow and arrow aided in her designs on the hearts of mortals.

(11.) VESTA, the goddess of the Domestic Hearth, a chaste



Minerva.

maiden, who was believed to dwell in the inner part of every house.

(12.) CERES, the goddess of Corn and Agriculture ; she was represented as holding a garland of corn-ears in the right hand, while with the left she poured flowers from a horn of plenty.

35. *Give the original Greek names of the gods of Olympus?—*Jupiter was called *Zeus*, Neptune *Poseidon*, Vulcan *Hephæstus*, Mars *Ares*, Mercury *Hermes*, Juno *Hera*, Minerva *Athena*, Diana *Artemis*, Venus *Aphrodité*, Vesta *Hestia*, and Ceres *Demeter*.

36. *What is the origin of the name Aphrodité?—*The name *Aphrodité* is derived from *aphros*, foam, in allusion to an old poetical myth which represented the goddess as springing from the foam of the sea. *Aphrodité*, however, had other names, according to places and circumstances, such as *Cythera*, *Cyprus*, *Paphos*, and *Ida*.

37. *Who was Argus?—*He was a monster with a hundred eyes, of which only two were asleep at the same time. Mercury, by order of Jupiter, slew him, after lulling all his eyes asleep with the sound of his lyre ; Juno took the eyes, and put them as a decoration on the tail of the peacock, a bird which was consecrated to her.

38. *Who was Bacchus?—*He was the god of Wine, whose worship consisted in noisy orgies, at which votaresses, called *Bacchantes*, danced in a wild and excited manner.

39. *Who was Silenus?—*He was the god of humour and good-fellowship, an ally of Bacchus.

40. *Who were Momus and Comus?—*Momus was the god of mockery, and Comus was the god of nocturnal revelry ; votaries of Comus went about at night, dancing and singing, and crowned with roses or myrtle.

41. *Who was Somnus?—*He was the drowsy god, or god of sleep, near whose habitation flowed the river *Léthé*, which creeps silently over the pebbles, and invites to slumber. One of the attendants of Somnus was *Morpheus*, whose duty it was to excite agreeable dreams.

42. *Who was Hymen?—*He was the god of marriage, represented to be the son of Bacchus and Venus. On the occasion of nuptials, propitiatory hymns were sung in his praise.

43. *Who was Hebe?—*She was the goddess of Youth, and cup-bearer to the gods of Olympus, whom she served with the divine drink, nectar.

44. *What was ambrosia?*—It was the food of the gods, and conferred immortality on those who ate it.

45. *Who was Aurora?*—She was the goddess of the Dawn, who rises in a chariot from the sea, and withdraws the curtains of night with her 'rosy fingers.' Her Greek name was Eos.

46. *Who was Phaeton?*—He was an ambitious youth, who was allowed to drive the chariot of the sun, but not being able to control the horses, Jupiter, to prevent setting the world on fire, was obliged to destroy him by a thunderbolt.

47. *Who was Iris?*—She was a goddess, the messenger of peace in nature, and symbolises the rainbow.

48. *Who was Pan?*—He was the god of Pastures and Flocks, and of a sportive character; his figure was that of a man with goat's ears and feet, and he played on a reed which is named from him.

49. *Who was Chloris?*—She was the goddess of flowers and blossoms, but is best known under the name Flora, which was given to her by the Romans. She is represented as a beautiful female, with a wreath of flowers on her head, and a few flowers in one of her hands. Chloris is the name sometimes given by modern poets to a rustic maiden.

50. *Who was Æolus?*—He was the god of Winds; from him is taken the name Æolian harp, an instrument played by the wind.

51. *Who was Boreas?*—He was the god and controller of the North Wind, and had temples erected to him, where he was propitiated by sacrifices.

52. *Who was Æsculapius?*—He was the god of the Healing Art, and his symbol was a serpent, with which he is generally represented.

53. *Who was Procrustes?*—He was a tyrant of Attica who caused beds of several lengths to be constructed on which to inflict cruelties on his victims. He consigned tall persons to short beds, and lopped off part of their limbs to suit the exact length; and to suit short persons to the long beds, he drew the limbs out. Procrustes was killed by Theseus. When any one is forced to adopt either of two alternatives, both equally bad, he is said to be placed on a 'Procrustean bed.'



Chloris.

54. *Who was Prometheus?*—He was a person who, having stolen fire from heaven, incurred the vengeance of Jupiter, who had him bound in chains on the summit of Mount Caucasus, and caused his liver to be daily preyed upon by a vulture; Hercules, however, killed the vulture, and set Prometheus at liberty.

55. *Who was Pandora?*—She was a beautiful female, endowed by the gods with a box filled with blessings, which mankind would have continued to enjoy if curiosity had not prompted her to open it, when all the blessings flew out except hope.

56. *What was Python?*—It was a monstrous serpent produced by the earth after the deluge of Deucalion, and was said to have been killed by the arrows of Apollo, in memory of which the Pythian games were instituted.

57. *Who were the Sibyls?*—They were prophetesses, who delivered oracular responses, and were guardians of certain writings called the Sibylline books.

58. *Who were the Fates?*—They were three daughters of Night, who determined human destiny—Clotho, the spinner of the thread of life; Lachesis, who determines the lot of every one; and Atropos, the inevitable.

59. *Who were the Furies?*—They were three goddesses of a fearful aspect, having serpents twined in their hair, and blood dripping from their eyes. Like the Fates, they had a share in determining the doom of persons exposed to calamity. The names of the Furies were Alecto, Megæra, and Tisiphone.

60. *Who was Hecate?*—She was a goddess of the infernal world, who presided over magic; she was of a frightful aspect, being represented with feet of reptiles, and with hissing snakes hanging from her neck and shoulders.

61. *Who was Nemesis?*—Nemesis was the goddess who visited all departures from rectitude with a just retribution. Any one who suffers from doing wrong is said to feel the torments of an avenging Nemesis.

62. *Who were the Harpies?*—They were hideous monsters with wings, who delighted in all that was loathsome, and took a wicked delight in contaminating all they touched.

63. *Who was Charon?*—He was a wretched old man, whose duty it was to ferry the spirits of the deceased across the river Styx, for which he charged a small coin; those who could not pay the fee were doomed to wander restlessly along the shores of Acheron.

64. *What was Cerberus?*—He was a ferocious dog with three heads, covered with snakes for hair, and his duty was to watch the gate of the infernal regions, lest any one should get out.

65. *Who was Briareus?*—He was a giant with a hundred hands and fifty heads, who, with others of his race, assisted the gods in their wars against the Titans.

66. *Who was Sisyphus?*—He was a person who, for his crimes, was banished by the gods to Tartarus, where his punishment consisted in rolling a stone to the top of a hill, but which ever rolled down again, and accordingly his toil was endless.

67. *Who were the Muses?*—They were the goddesses of Music, Poetry, Song, and Dancing; they were nine in number, and are represented as companions of Apollo; their names were Clio, Euterpe, Thalia, Melpomene, Terpsichore, Erato, Polyhymnia, Urania, and Calliope. Poets still sometimes affect to invoke the aid of the Muses.

68. *What was Parnassus?*—It was a celebrated mountain near the centre of Greece, inhabited by the Muses, to whom a well at its base, called the Castalian Fountain, was dedicated.

69. *Who was Orpheus?*—He was a son of Apollo and the muse Calliope, and was celebrated for his beauty and his musical powers; on the death of his wife Eurydice, he went to the nether world, and, by the charms of his lyre, won her back from the stern Pluto; but forgetting the condition—that he was not to look back upon his restored wife till they reached the upper world—she was again snatched away from him. Orpheus is represented bearing a harp with seven strings.

70. *Who were the Graces?*—They were the goddesses of Grace, Favour, and Gentleness, and were of matchless beauty; they were three in number—Aglaia, Thalia, Euphrosyne, and are generally represented in a group.

71. *Who were the Nymphs?*—They were the goddesses of Mountains, Woods, Streams, Grottoes, and Fountains, and were of several classes; those who frequented woods and forests were called Dryads and Hamadryads.

72. *Who were the Sirens?*—They were beautiful sea-goddesses, with the tails of fishes, and by their songs lured persons to destruction; they seem to have given rise to the fabulous mermaids of later times.

73. *Who were the Tritons?*—They were heralds of Neptune; in form they were half-man and half-fish, and are represented as blowing a large shell as a trumpet.

74. *Who was Eris?*—She was a goddess (called *Discordia* by the Romans) who promoted quarrels, discord, and confusion. Taking offence at not being invited to the marriage of Peleus and the sea-nymph Thetis, she entered abruptly and threw down the golden apple, which caused a contention between Juno, Minerva, and Mercury; for this she was thrust from heaven by Jupiter, but continued to work mischief and to be propitiated in temples. From this fable arise expressions about ‘throwing down the apple of discord.’

75. *Who was Fame?*—She was the goddess of rumour, and was represented in a flying attitude sounding a trumpet; the name in Greek was *Pheme*, and in Latin *Fama*.



Fame.

76. *Who was Fortune?*—She was the goddess of chance; her name in Greek was *Tyche*, and in Latin *Fortuna*. She was represented leaning on a wheel, or with a rudder, symbolic of her guiding power.

77. *Who was Psyche?*—In Greek, the term *Psyche* signified the soul. According to mythic allegory, Psyche was a beautiful princess who was married to Cupid. She is represented with the wings of a butterfly springing from her shoulders, and holding a butterfly in her hand.

78. *Who was Proteus?*—He was a deified mortal, keeper of the sea-calves of Neptune on the island of Pharos; and, to elude those who wished to consult him, possessed the power of changing himself into all sorts of shapes—beasts, birds, fishes, trees, fire, water, or other objects. Any one who assumes different appearances, is said to do so ‘Protean-like.’

79. *Who were the Gorgons?*—They were three sisters, named Stheno, Euryale, and Medusa, all immortal except Medusa; their hair was twined with serpents, their hands were of brass, their bodies were covered with impenetrable scales, their teeth resembled the tusks of the wild boar, and they possessed the power of turning to stone all on whom they fixed their eyes. Perseus had the address to cut off the head of Medusa before she could see him.

80. *What was Pegasus?*—He was a winged horse which sprung from the blood of Medusa, and immediately flew up to heaven: according to a modern poetic fancy, Pegasus became

the horse of the Muses on Mount Helicon—hence, a person who writes poetry is said to ‘mount his Pegasus.’

81. *Who was Pygmalion?*—He was a statuary, who, having carved a female statue in ivory, entreated Venus to endow it with life, which wish was granted, and it became his wife. This fable has suggested various poems and dramas.

82. *Who was Dido?*—She was a daughter of a king of Tyre; her husband being murdered, she fled with some treasures, and founded Carthage. There is a legend that Dido purchased as much land as could be encompassed by a bull’s hide; whereupon she cut the hide into thongs, and thus enclosed a large piece of territory.

83. *Who was Narcissus?*—He was a youth of great beauty, who, seeing his figure reflected in a river, became enamoured of himself, and forthwith languished and died.

84. *Who was Philomela?*—She was sister-in-law of Tereus, king of Thrace, who treated her with cruel violence, and she was afterwards changed into a nightingale. This bird still bears her name, Philomel, and is supposed by the poets to continue to wail her fate in expressive notes.

85. *What were the Greek oracles?*—They were responses given to questions respecting future events at certain shrines, and were supposed to proceed from some deity. The most celebrated oracles were those at Delphi, where the priestess, called the Pythia, seated on a tripod over a chasm of the earth, from which an intoxicating vapour issued, was believed to become inspired by Apollo; and her utterances, when in this state, were interpreted by the attendant priests.

86. *What were tutelary gods?*—Tutelary gods and goddesses were those deities who were supposed to protect individuals and places; Athens, for example, was under the protection of Athene or Minerva, as a tutelary goddess.

87. *What were the Olympic and Pythian games?*—The Olympic games were great festivals, partly religious and partly for amusement, held in the plain of Olympia every four years, which length of time was called an olympiad. The Pythian games were second in importance only to the Olympic games, and were celebrated in the third year of every olympiad. There were likewise Nemean and Isthmian games, at all of which there were great concourses of people.

88. *Who was Midas?*—He was a king of Phrygia, to whom Bacchus granted his wish, that everything he touched might turn to gold; finding that his food became gold, he was relieved of the unpleasant boon by Bacchus causing him to bathe in the river Pactolus.

89. *What is meant by 'the ears of Midas?'*—Having been appointed umpire to determine whether the reed of Pan or the flute of Apollo was the finer instrument, Midas gave the preference to the reed, whereupon Apollo, as a punishment, gave him a pair of ass's ears.

90. *Who was Laocoon?*—He was a priest of Apollo or Neptune, who was destroyed with his two sons by two enormous serpents, which coiled about them. This legendary story has formed the subject of perhaps the grandest of the ancient Greek sculptures.

91. *Who was Europa?*—She was a beautiful princess, who was carried off by Jupiter in the form of a bull, on the back of which she had seated herself, from its apparent gentleness. The continent of Europe is named from her.

92. *Who was Minos?*—He was a king of Crete, son of Jupiter and Europa, and celebrated for his wisdom and military skill; at his death he was, with Rhadamanthus, made a judge of the infernal regions.



Laocöon.

93. *Who was Ariadne?*—She was daughter of Minos, king of Crete—grandson of the first Minos—and was married to Theseus. Ariadne possessed great beauty, and has been a favourite object of sculpture.

94. *Who was Theseus?*—He was a king of Athens, and a companion of Hercules and Jason in the expedition to bring home the golden fleece. Having gone to Crete to kill the Minotaur, a monster half-man, half-bull, confined in a celebrated labyrinth, he was furnished by Ariadne with a clue of thread, by which he found his way out, and married her in gratitude for his deliverance.

95. *Who was Cadmus?*—He was brother to Europa, and having gone to seek for her when carried off by Jupiter, arrived at a spot where he killed a dragon, and, at the command of Minerva, sowed its teeth in the earth, from which armed men immediately sprang up. He built the city of Thebes, and taught the inhabitants a knowledge of letters.

96. *What was the 'Gordian-knot?'*—It was an intricate knot by which, on one occasion, Gordius, king of Phrygia, tied the harness of his oxen. An oracle having declared that he who was able to untie the knot would conquer Asia, Alexander the Great, after failing to untie it, cut it asunder with his sword. Hence, 'to cut the Gordian-knot,' is equivalent to overcoming a difficulty by a violent measure.

97. *What is the story of Hero and Leander?*—Hero was a priestess of Venus celebrated for her love of Leander, who visited her by swimming at night across the Hellespont; his course on these occasions being directed by a blazing torch which Hero held from the top of a tower. One tempestuous night Leander was drowned, and at sight of his body cast ashore, Hero threw herself from the tower.

98. *Who was Tantalus?*—He was a person who forfeited the favour of the gods, and as a punishment was condemned to perpetual thirst, by standing in water which his lips could not reach. From this legend is derived the English word *tantalise*.

Ancient History—Greece, its Credible History.

1. *When does the credible history of Greece begin?*—It begins 776 B.C., such being the date of the first Olympiad—all previous to that period being regarded as doubtful or fabulous.

2. *How was Greece governed?*—The country consisted of a number of separate states, which in the early legendary period are represented as having been governed by kings; but afterwards, when authentic history begins, each state was ruled either by an aristocracy or democracy, and among them there were frequent dissensions and wars.

3. *Mention the chief states of Greece.*—Thessaly, Argolis, Arcadia, Corinth, Elis, Achaia, Phocis, Bœotia, Laconia, and Attica; but there were several others, and also some colonies in Asia Minor, Sicily, and Italy. The two states most prominent in history were Attica and Laconia—better known by the names of their chief cities, Athens and Sparta.

4. *What was remarkable about Arcadia?*—It was a mountainous country in the Peloponnesus, inhabited by a people of simple rural habits, and full of patriotic ardour, who considered themselves to be descendants of the most ancient

settlers. From their manners is derived the phrase 'Arcadian simplicity.'

5. *What was the Amphictyonic Council?*—It was a central council, or congress of representatives of the early Grecian tribes, who met to determine questions of international law; it continued to exist for a long period, but latterly ceased to command respect. It was thought to have taken its name from Amphictyon, one of the early kings of Athens.

6. *Who was Codrus?*—According to the legend he was the last of the kings of Athens, and died about 1068 B. C.

7. *Who was Lycurgus?*—He was a sage who gave laws to Sparta and formed its government; the discipline he enjoined on the Spartan youth was exceedingly severe, and he required all classes to study only the public good; he, however, sanctioned the condition of helots.

8. *Who were the Helots?*—They were a lower order of people in Laconia, held in the condition of serfs or slaves, who might be assassinated at the pleasure of their owners.

9. *Who were the Doric Greeks?*—They were the descendants of the Peloponnesians who had come from the small mountain district of Doris, near Thessaly, and had occupied principally Laconia and Argolis. The Doric Greeks were noted for the plainness of their dialect, and the plain solidity of their architecture.

10. *Who were the Ionic Greeks?*—They comprehended the inhabitants of Attica, Eubœa, and some other places; the whole were much more polished than the Doric Greeks.

11. *What was meant by 'Attic wit?'*—It meant any saying that was smart or witty; the inhabitants of Attica being reputed for their clever observations. 'Attic salt' is a phrase still employed to signify a keen or witty remark.

12. *What city was Athens?*—Athens, or, more properly, Athenæ, was the capital of Attica, and chief city in Greece; it was celebrated for its learning and its many fine buildings.

13. *What was the Ilissus?*—It was a river in Attica, often referred to, but is a mere mountain torrent, almost dry in summer.

14. *What was the Piræus?*—It was the harbour or seaport of Athens, from which it was not far distant.

15. *What was the nature of the Athenian government?*—It was at first a kind of aristocracy, with chief rulers called *archons*; but falling into disorder, a reform was attempted by Draco.

16. *Who was Draco?*—He was one of the archons, who compiled a code of laws of so exceedingly severe a nature, that the lightest, as well as the greatest offences, were punishable with death. Hence, severe laws are still called ‘Draconian.’

17. *Who was Solon?*—He was a learned and sagacious person, who was invited to remedy the abuses of government in Athens, which the laws of Draco had failed to cure; he introduced various modifications, but was at length set aside by Peisistratus, who usurped the supreme power. The government of Peisistratus, however, was mild and beneficent, and he is noted as the most liberal, humane, and accomplished of all the Greek ‘tyrants.’

18. *Who were the ‘tyrants’ in ancient Greece?*—They were rulers who had usurped or acquired in a political crisis the supreme authority of the state, but were not necessarily cruel or oppressive, as the English term would lead one to suppose. Some of them were quite the reverse. Byron justly says:

‘The “tyrant” of the Chersonese
Was freedom’s best and truest friend.’

19. *What was the Areopagus?*—It was the high council or tribunal at Athens, partly composed of persons who had been chief-magistrate; it met in the open air, and during the night, in order that the members might not be distracted by surrounding objects.

20. *What is the meaning of the word Areopagus?*—It signifies the ‘Hill of Ares,’ such being the place where the tribunal had its meetings. As Ares is the Greek term for Mars, the hill became known to the Romans as ‘Mars’ Hill,’ and under that designation it is referred to as the spot where Paul preached at Athens (Acts xvii. 22).

21. *Who was Cleisthenes?*—He was one of the successors of Peisistratus, who made fresh attempts to improve the government, one of his institutions being that of ostracism.

22. *What was ostracism?*—It was a vote of banishment by the citizens of Athens against any one they disliked; 6000 votes being deemed sufficient. The votes were inscribed on a shell (in Greek, *ostrakon*), and hence the term.

23. *What was the period in which the Grecian states enjoyed the greatest prosperity?*—From about 500 to 146 B. C., during which time, amidst constant wars, dissensions, and even subjugation, the country attained to a high perfection in architecture, sculpture, and various other arts, also to much renown for its literature and philosophy.

24. *Who was Miltiades?*—He was commander of the Athenian army, with which he was victorious over the Persians under Darius, at the battle of Marathon, fought 490 B. C. Miltiades afterwards forfeited the regard of his countrymen by some traitorous proceedings.

25. *Who were the Lacedæmonians?*—That was the older name for the Spartans.

26. *Who was Leonidas?*—He was commander of the Peloponnesians in defending the Pass of Thermopylæ against Xerxes and a host of Persians, in which attempt he was killed, and Athens was, shortly afterwards, captured, and many of its buildings destroyed.

27. *Who was Themistocles?*—He was an Athenian commander, who gained the naval victory of Salamis over the Persians, and so relieved Greece from its invaders; the Persians were finally defeated at Plataea by Pausanias (478 B. C.).

28. *Who was Aristides?*—He was an archon of Athens, celebrated for his upright character, but was factiously ostracised by the citizens; he was afterwards recalled, and helped to rid the country of the Persians.

29. *Who was Pausanias?*—He was a Spartan general who, having favoured the Persians, was detected in his treachery, and to save himself from popular vengeance, took refuge in a temple of Minerva; but his indignant mother brought the first stone to build up the entrance to the temple, and the populace completed the work, by which he was walled up and starved to death.

30. *Who was Pericles?*—He was a successor of Themistocles, and gained a complete ascendancy over the Athenians as a civic ruler and military commander. He greatly beautified Athens with the Parthenon and other public buildings, and the city, in his time, recovered from its injuries, was in all its glory; he died 429 B. C.

31. *Who was Aspasia?*—She was the beautiful and accomplished wife of Pericles; her marriage, however, was not considered to be legal, for she was a native of Miletus in Ionia, and by a cruel system, all foreign women in Athens were deprived of the benefit of the laws. A misunderstanding of this fact has led to erroneous opinions respecting Aspasia.

32. *What was the Parthenon?*—It was the temple of Athene or Minerva at Athens, built of marble by order of Pericles, and situated on a conspicuous part of the *Acropolis*—a word signifying the highest point in the city.

33. *Who was Alcibiades?*—He was a handsome youth,

nephew of Pericles, and an able military commander ; but he possessed no fixed principles, served opposite parties, and was



Parthenon.

killed by the Persians at the instigation of the Spartans, 404 B. C.

34. *Who were the Thebans ?*—They were inhabitants of Bœotia, so called from Thebes, the capital of their state. The Bœotians were reputed to be dull and stupid ; but this may have been said invidiously, for they produced some of the most illustrious of the Greek warriors and writers.

35. *What was the Peloponnesian war ?*—It was a civil war arising from the rivalry between Sparta and Athens for the leadership of the Grecian states ; this war, which lasted twenty years, greatly devastated Greece, and led to its subjugation by Philip, king of Macedon, 338 B. C.

36. *What was the state of Greece when subjugated ?*—A new lustre was conferred on the Hellenic race by the vigorous policy of Philip, and the splendid conquests of his son Alexander the Great, who utterly overthrew the power of the Persians, and carried the fame of Greece almost to the banks of the Ganges.

37. *What was the fate of Greece on the death of Alexander ?*—It remained a dependency of Macedon, and endeavoured, by a confederacy, called the Achæan League, to recover independence, but was unsuccessful. After remaining altogether 190 years subject to Macedon, Greece, in the year 148 B. C., passed into the power of the Romans, who succeeded as the next great conquerors of the world.

38. *Where was the vale of Tempé ?*—It was part of the valley of the river Peneus in Thessaly, having Mount Olympus on the north, and Mount Ossa on the south ; by the Greek poets Tempé was celebrated for its great beauty, and it is still admired for its picturesque character.

39. *From what does 'Samian wine' take its name?*—From the island of Samos, one of the principal islands on the coast of Greece, which is celebrated for its wine, oil, silk, and other productions.

40. *For what was Hymettus celebrated?*—Hymettus was a mountain in Attica, distinguished for the quantity and excellence of its honey, which the bees here collected.

41. *What was the Colossus of Rhodes?*—It was a colossal brazen statue of Helios, erected at the entrance to one of the ports of the island of Rhodes; it was 70 cubits, or about 105 feet high, and it is said that a man could scarcely compass one of the thumbs of the figure with his arms. This famed colossus, which was destroyed by an earthquake, 224 B.C., is usually represented as having stood astride over the entrance to the port; but this is thought to have been a fable.

42. *In what way has modern society been benefited by ancient Greece?*—It has derived great benefit from its literature and philosophy, also from its exquisite taste in the arts of sculpture and architecture. Its mythology has likewise given rise to innumerable poetic fancies, to which, after an interval of two thousand years, there is still a constant reference.

43. *Who was Phidias?*—He was an eminent Grecian sculptor in the time of Pericles, and executed some of the grandest of the statues at Athens.

44. *Who was Hippocrates?*—He was a celebrated physician of Greece, the first founder of a regular system of medicine; he flourished about 400 B.C.

45. *Mention some of the celebrated philosophers of Greece.*—Pythagoras, Empedocles, Zeno, Socrates, Aristotle, Plato, Diogenes, Epicurus, and Democritus.

46. *What is one of the traditions respecting Empedocles?*—He is said to have thrown himself into the crater of Mount Etna, in order to create a belief by his sudden disappearance that he had been taken up by the gods, but that the volcano having ejected his sandals, the manner of his death was discovered; this legend rests on no credible authority.

47. *Mention some of the celebrated writers of Greece.*—Homer, Hesiod, Pindar and Sappho, Æschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, Herodotus, Aristophanes, Thucydides, Theocritus, Strabo, Xenophon, and Plutarch; but there were many others.

48. *Who was Demosthenes?*—He was a celebrated orator of Greece; his most famous speeches were called *Philippics*, from being fiery denunciations of Philip, king of Macedon.

Ancient History—Rome.

1. *Where is Rome situated?*—It is situated in a central part of Italy, on both sides of the Tiber, about thirteen miles from the shore of the Mediterranean.

2. *What was the early condition of Italy?*—It was occupied by a number of separate peoples of the same Asiatic origin as the Greeks, and who were known as Latins, Oscans, Sabines, Tusci, Volscians, and others, each forming a small nation.

3. *What was the part occupied by the Latins?*—It was Latium, from which they took their name, and it was in Latium that the city of Rome sprung into existence, and latterly gave a designation to such of the inhabitants of Italy as received the Roman franchise. The Roman language continued to be called *Latin*, and still is so called.

4. *Who was Romulus?*—He was the person from whom Rome is said to have derived its name, but we know little else concerning him than a mythic fable.

5. *What is the myth concerning Romulus?*—It is related that Romulus and Remus, twin-brothers of royal parentage, were exposed as infants to perish, and were saved by being suckled by a she-wolf on the Palatine Hill, where Romulus subsequently founded the city of Rome.

6. *What is the date of this alleged event?*—About 753 B.C., and though the story of Romulus and the wolf is now known to be a fable, it is certain that there was such a person as Romulus, and that he was the first of a series of kings of Rome.

7. *What is the legend concerning the Sabines?*—It is said that the Sabines, with their families, were invited by Romulus to a festival, and that when they had come, the Romans seized on the wives and daughters of their guests—an outrage which produced a war; but at the intercession of the Sabine women, whom the Romans married, peace was restored, and a union took place between the two nations.

8. *When did the kingly government of Rome terminate?*—It ended in 509 B.C., after a series of seven kings, the last of whom, Tarquin, was expelled, and a commonwealth or republic was established.

9. *Who was Lucius Junius Brutus?*—He was a rich Roman, who, to escape being murdered like his brother by Tarquin, king of Rome, feigned idiocy. In consequence of Tarquin's

atrocities, Brutus assumed his proper character, and rousing the people, expelled Tarquin. Brutus was now chosen one of the consuls, in which capacity, sitting as a judge, he condemned his own son to death for having conspired to restore the monarchy—an often-quoted instance of the stern character of the ancient Romans.

10. *What was the social condition of Rome at this time?*—The inhabitants consisted, first, of a privileged class, called the *Patricians*; second, the *Clients*, or strangers; third, the *Plebs*, or plebeians; and, fourth, the *Servi*, or slaves, who were bought and sold like cattle.

11. *Why were the strangers called clients?*—Because, possessing no civic privileges, they had to put themselves under the protection of some powerful citizen, who was styled their *Patron*. The word *client*, from the Latin, signifies a listener—hence a dependent.

12. *Who were the Roman consuls?*—They were two chief-magistrates appointed annually, in whom was vested the executive government, with the exception of that which belonged to the pontiffs.

13. *Who were the Pontiffs?*—They were a college of priests, and had charge of the religious ceremonials; their president was styled *Pontifex Maximus*. The word *pontifex* is said to come from the Latin *pons*, a bridge, and *facio*, to make; the priests having been the first builders of bridges across the Tiber. The officiating priests were called *flamens*.

14. *What was the religion of the Romans?*—It was a polytheism resembling that of the Greeks—a large number of heathen gods and goddesses being worshipped in temples, and oracles consulted. While adopting much of the Greek mythology, the Romans introduced a number of new fables, rejected various coarse observances, and changed the names of nearly the whole of the gods and goddesses. Such alterations have caused considerable perplexity in literature; in the present day, the Roman names are for the most part employed.

15. *What were the 'Lares, Manes, and Penates?'*—They were tutelary or guardian spirits, who, as a species of deities, were supposed to watch over cities, private dwellings, and individuals. The Romans had their public and domestic *lares*, and in the higher class of dwellings, images were set up in shrines to receive particular honours. The spirits of deceased persons were called their *manes*.

16. *Who was Janus?*—He was a god of the Romans, unknown to the Greeks. The first hour of the day, and the first

day of the year were sacred to him ; he was represented by a figure with two faces—one looking to the past, the other to the future ; he was also the god of doorways and passages. Janus had a temple, which was opened at the beginning of every war, and was not shut while the war lasted. Our word *January* is taken from the name of this god of the opening year, and so likewise is our word *janitor*, or door-keeper.

17. *Who was Concordia?*—She was a goddess of the Romans, who promoted peace and friendly intercourse, and is generally represented as a graceful female holding a cornucopia or horn of plenty. The effigy of Concordia is seen on some Roman coins.

18. *Who were the Fauns?*—The Romans considered them to be the gods of the woods and groves, and in form they resembled the Satyrs of the Greek mythology.

19. *Who was the Cumæan sibyl?*—She was one of the Grecian sibyls, who was transferred by the poets to the caverns of Cuma, in Southern Italy, adjoining the Lake of Avernus.

20. *Who were the Cimmerians?*—They were a fabulous race of savages who lived in perpetual darkness, where the sun never shines. From them we have the phrase ‘Cimmerian darkness.’

21. *Where is Avernus?*—It is a lake situated amidst woods and mountains, formed in the crater of an extinct volcano, between Puteoli and Baiæ, in the Bay of Naples. By the poet Virgil, it was described as the entrance to the infernal world, and gave rise to the well-known saying in the Latin : ‘*Facilis descensus Averno*’—meaning, easy is the descent to Avernus (or to that which is evil).

22. *What were the augurs?*—They were persons who were believed to be interpreters of the divine will, and were gravely consulted for this purpose by the chief-magistrate and others. Their divination consisted in drawing auguries from the heavenly bodies, the flights of birds, the running of certain quadrupeds across a path, and so on. Hence the English term *augury*.

23. *What were the auspices?*—They were divinations of a peculiar kind, and unless such were favourable to a candidate for office, he could not be appointed. The power of taking the auspices in war was confined to the commander-in-chief. The term *auspices* is derived from *avis*, a bird, and *specio*, I see or inspect—the auspices being taken from observing the flight of birds.

24. *Who was Coriolanus?*—He was a haughty patrician, who, during a famine in Rome, 491 B.C., proposed to starve the plebs unless they relinquished their privileges, and abolished the office of tribune. Impeached and banished, he rebelliously headed an army of Volscians, and was prevented from attacking and destroying Rome only by the entreaties of his mother, Veturia. Coriolanus was afterwards assassinated by the Volscians.

25. *Who was Cincinnatus?*—He was a patrician who was distinguished for his remarkable honesty, ability, and simplicity of manners. Being chosen consul, the messengers who went to intimate his election found him in his fields at the plough, 458 B.C. He regretfully accepted office, and on this and subsequent occasions rendered valuable services to the country, for which he was greatly revered. Ancient history presents no finer character than Cincinnatus.

26. *Where was Gaul?*—It was the country now known as France, and was called *Gallia* by the Romans, in whose time it was inhabited chiefly by a branch of the Celtic people. A part of the north of Italy was called Cisalpine Gaul.

27. *When did the Gauls invade Italy?*—Their first warlike invasion of Italy took place under Brennus, when they defeated the Romans, and sacked and burned Rome, 390 B.C.

28. *How was the capitol saved by the cackling of geese?*—It is related that during the occupation of Rome by the Gauls they attempted to seize the capitol, which had stood out against them. The attempt was made by scaling the rock of the Capitoline Hill during the night; but their movements alarmed the geese sacred to Juno, and these birds beginning to cackle, the garrison were roused, and the capitol saved.

29. *Did the Romans recover from the invasion of the Gauls?*—Yes; they ultimately expelled the invaders, and from a sentiment of ambition as well as a desire to secure themselves from similar attacks, began a series of wars against the Tusci, Volscians, and other petty nations in Italy, which, though led by Pyrrhus, an able Greek general, were all subdued by the Romans previous to 275 B.C.

30. *Who was Marcus Curtius?*—He was a noble Roman youth who lived about the time of the invasion by the Gauls. According to legend, he heroically sacrificed his life for the welfare of the country, 362 B.C. A chasm, it is said, had opened in the forum, and the soothsayers predicted that some great calamity would happen if there was not thrown into the opening the best wealth of the state. While the public were

considering what this best wealth could be, Curtius appeared on horseback, and in full armour, and exclaimed : ‘ Rome has no greater riches than courage and arms.’ He then rode over the precipice into the chasm, which immediately closed over him.

31. *Which was the country of the Tusci?*—It was called Etruria, and was situated in the valley of the Arno, north of Rome; Etruria was celebrated for its manufacture of earthenware, specimens of which, known as Etruscan tiles and vases, have latterly been discovered. The ancient country of the Tusci is now called Tuscany, of which Florence is the capital.

32. *Who were the Tribunes?*—They were officers appointed to protect the plebs from the tyranny of the patrician magistrates; their institution took place on the occasion of a civil tumult, 493 B.C.; afterwards, military tribunes were also appointed. The word *tribune* is from the Latin *tribus*, a tribe.

33. *Was the government of the Roman republic conducted peacefully?*—No; from first to last it was attended with constant dissensions among the different classes, also a prodigious degree of corruption, and often the commonwealth was saved only by the energy of individuals and the adoption of extraordinary expedients. A source of discord was removed by an assimilation of the privileges of the patricians and plebs, 286 B.C.

34. *Who were the lictors?*—They were the official attendants of the highest magistrates, before whom, in processions, they carried *fascēs*, clearing the way; they acted also as executioners. The *fascēs* consisted of a bundle of rods with the head of an axe projecting from the middle of it. The term *lictor* is believed to come from the Latin *ligo*, to bind.

35. *What was the Plebiscitum?*—It was a general vote or resolution of the plebs in favour of any measure, which became law on receiving the sanction of the patrician senate.

36. *What were the Censors, Quæstors, and Ædiles?*—The censors were administrators of the public revenue, and took note of the number, property, and rank of citizens; they, besides, exercised a general control over the morals of the community,



Fascēs.

and in this respect were invested with almost unlimited power. The *quæstors* kept the public accounts; the *ædiles* superintended the arrival of provisions, guarded the public monuments, and prepared the games and public shows.

37. *Who were the Prætors?*—They were six in number; two presided over the tribunals at Rome, but subsequently they were appointed to govern provinces and command the armies. It was necessary to be a prætor before being a candidate for the consulship; and the consul, after his term of a year expired, was eligible as *proconsul* or governor of a distant dependency.

38. *Who were the Dictators?*—A dictator was a magistrate appointed in extreme emergencies to exercise supreme rule for a period of six months; in fact, dictators were temporary despots.

39. *What was the practice of candidates for office?*—They were obliged to wear a white gown; and as the Latin for white is *candidus*, the term *candidate* was thus originated.

40. *Did the Romans impart the privilege of citizenship to the inhabitants of the subdued provinces?*—At first they did so only to a limited extent—such as to descendants of Romans, and to persons of note; but gradually the privilege was extended, until, under the emperors, whole nations received it. The conquered provinces, however, were allowed to retain their own religious observances, municipal laws, and usages.

41. *Was the privilege of Roman citizenship highly prized?*—Yes; it was considered a very high honour to be able to say, *Romanus sum*, I am a Roman, for it insured respect, and conferred the right of appealing to the tribunals at Rome for a redress of grievances.

42. *Give an instance of an appeal to Rome?*—Paul having been illegally imprisoned by the Roman proconsul at Cæsarea, fearlessly appealed to Rome on the ground of being a Roman citizen, and thus successfully stayed persecution. He had acquired the right of appeal by being a native of Tarsus, a city in Asia Minor, to whose inhabitants the Romans had imparted the privileges of citizenship.

43. *What were the Punic wars?*—They were wars undertaken by the Romans against the Carthaginians, a maritime people, named from their capital Carthage, which was in Africa, on the shores of the Mediterranean. It was during the Punic wars—between 264 B.C. and 146 B.C.—that the Romans became a maritime power.

44. *Why were the wars called ‘Punic?’*—Because the

Carthaginians were descendants of the *Phoinikes*, or Phœnicians.

45. *Who was Hannibal?*—He was the leader of the Carthaginians, and with a large army crossed the Pyrenees and Alps to attack the Romans; he was, however, obliged to retire to Africa, and was defeated by Scipio, 202 B. C.

46. *Who was Fabius?*—He was the Roman general who outmanœuvred Hannibal in Italy, by weakening and fatiguing the Carthaginians by marches and delays. From this discreet caution in damaging an enemy without risking a battle has arisen the phrase, 'Fabian policy.'

47. *What was meant by 'Punic faith'?*—The Romans accused the Carthaginians of being treacherous, and they ironically used the phrase *Punica fides*, Punic faith, as equivalent to faithlessness.

48. *Who was Cato?*—He was a Roman senator who became Censor 184 B.C.; in character, he was honest, but noisy and intractable. Taking umbrage at Carthage, as being a rival of Italian cities, he inveighed against it, and is chiefly remembered for his famous oratorical diatribes against that unfortunate city. Whatever was the subject of his harangue, he wound up with the phrase, *Delenda est Carthago*, 'Carthage must be destroyed.'

49. *When was Carthage destroyed?*—It was destroyed by a Roman army under Scipio Æmilianus, adopted grandson of the great Scipio, 146 B.C., when the city, which contained 700,000 inhabitants, was razed to the ground.

50. *Why did the Romans attack Greece?*—They took offence at Philip V., king of Macedon, and ruler of Greece, for having entered into a treaty with Hannibal, and levying war against him, they subjugated Macedon and Greece, 148 B.C.; the Romans afterwards subdued the Grecian monarchies in Egypt and Asia.

51. *Who were the Gracchi?*—They were two brothers who, as an act of justice to the plebs, attempted to effect some reforms connected with the division of lands, in which they were unsuccessful. One after the other was set upon and killed at the instigation of the patrician order, and many thousands were slain, particularly at the last of these civic uproars, 121 B.C.

52. *What was the Jugurthine war?*—It was a war undertaken by the Romans to rescue Numidia in Africa from a usurper named Jugurtha, who after some trouble was brought to Rome in chains by Marius and starved to death in

prison, 106 B.C. This war also brought Sulla, a general, into notice.

53. *What was the Cimbric war?*—It was a war against the Cimbri, a numerous tribe of Celts who had thrown Gaul into a state of consternation, and threatened Italy. The Cimbri were suppressed with great slaughter by Marius, 101 B.C. Immediately afterwards Marius further distinguished himself by quelling a rebellion in Italy, called the Social War, from the Latin *socius*, an ally.

54. *What was the fate of Marius?*—After rendering important services to the commonwealth, and being several times consul, he was proscribed by his rival Sulla, when he fled, and is said to have sought refuge in Africa amidst the ruins of Carthage. He afterwards returned to Rome, and died, worn out with sufferings, 86 B.C.

55. *Who was Sulla?*—He was a Roman general and statesman, the head of the patrician party, and therefore the opponent of Marius, the leader of the plebeians. The struggle between the two was of the most desperate and sanguinary character; after the death of Marius, the genius of Sulla triumphed over his lesser adversaries, and a dreadful persecution, known as the *Sullan Proscriptions*, followed, B.C. 81, during which period, and for some time after, he held the office of dictator.

56. *Who was Catiline?*—He was a Roman of good birth, but of audacious character, who headed a band of conspirators to usurp power, and seize upon and divide the public treasures. He was inveighed against in the senate by Cicero in a celebrated oration, in which occurs the exclamation, often quoted, *O tempora, O mores!*—O times, O manners! Catiline was killed while rebelliously fighting against the republic, 62 B.C. The history of Catiline's conspiracy is related by Sallust.

57. *Who was Pompey?*—He was a military commander and consul who effected various conquests in Asia, took Jerusalem, and imposed a heavy tribute on the Jews; afterwards, he became the rival of Caius Julius Cæsar, by whom he and his partisans were defeated at the battle of Pharsalia, 48 B.C. Pompey was killed soon afterwards.

58. *Who was Caius Julius Cæsar?*—He was the greatest general which the Roman commonwealth had produced, and was equally distinguished as a historian, statesman, and orator. He is remembered chiefly for his conquests in Gaul and invasion of Britain, of which he has given an account in his celebrated work, *The Wars in Gaul*. Cæsar also rendered

important military services to the commonwealth in Egypt and Asia Minor.

59. *What was the memorable announcement of Cæsar from Asia Minor?*—Having ended the war against Pharnaces, son of Mithridates, in a single battle, he sent to Rome the famous dispatch, consisting of three words, *Veni, vidi, vici*, I came, I saw, I conquered.

60. *What is meant by 'passing the Rubicon?'*—That refers to an important incident in the life of Cæsar. By an intrigue of Pompey and others at Rome, Cæsar was ordered by the senate to resign his command in Gaul within a certain time or be proclaimed a traitor to the republic. Disobeying this order, he hastened to Rome with his army, crossing the Rubicon, a small river on the boundary of Italy, and thereby committed himself to the result. When any one, therefore, commits himself by a certain act, he is said to have 'passed the Rubicon,' or done that which cannot be recalled.



61. *Was Cæsar successful on passing the Rubicon?*—Yes; he made himself master of Italy. The republic was now substantially at an end, and by the defeat of Pompey, Cæsar had become supreme commander of the forces and chief ruler, under the title of *Princeps Senatus*, or Chief of the Senate, in which capacity he effected many beneficial reforms.

62. *Who was Marcus Junius Brutus?*—He was a senator of literary habits, who conspired with Cassius, Casca, and others, to assassinate Cæsar; his wife was Portia, a daughter of Cato the younger.

63. *When was Cæsar killed?*—He was assassinated at Rome, March 15—called in the Roman reckoning the *Ides of March*—44 B.C.

64. *What were the incidents of this foul affair?*—Cæsar was first struck by the dagger of Casca in the neck, and then was attacked by others, against whom he defended himself, until he was struck by his old friend Brutus, when he mournfully exclaimed: *Et tu, Bruté!* ('And thou, Brutus!'), and covering his face decorously with his mantle, he fell, pierced by twenty-three wounds, at the foot of Pompey's statue.

65. *What is now the general opinion concerning Cæsar?*—Without vindicating his ambition or extenuating his errors.

it is thought that he only interposed to save the state from the dissolution which was likely to ensue from the intrigues of demagogues and a most corrupt political system ; that, in fact, the time having arrived for a despotism to secure public order, circumstances brought Cæsar into the position which he had the tact to accept and ability to occupy.

66. *Did the assassination of Cæsar bring back the republic ?*—Not at all ; it only opened the way to power for a long line of successors.

67. *Who were Cæsar's immediate successors ?*—They were three persons, known as the Triumvirate, who wanted to avenge Cæsar's death—Mark Antony, Lepidus, and Octavius, a young man, grand-nephew of Cæsar, who now assumed the name of Caius Julius Cæsar Octavianus. At the battle of Philippi, 42 B.C., they defeated the republican forces under Brutus and Cassius, and each took a share of the Roman dominions. In a state of desperation Cassius and Brutus killed themselves.

68. *What was the remarkable saying of Brutus respecting Cassius ?*—That he was *Ultimus Romanorum*—the last of the Romans ; meaning, that with him the ancient national spirit would be extinct.

69. *What was the fate of Lepidus ?*—Octavianus quarrelled with him, and took his share of the Roman dominions, whereupon he retired into private life.

70. *What was the fate of Mark Antony ?*—A rupture took place between him and Octavianus ; he was defeated at the naval engagement of Actium, off the coast of Epirus, 31 B.C., and fled to Egypt with Cleopatra, where both died by their own hands, 30 B.C.

71. *Who was Cleopatra ?*—She was a beautiful Egyptian princess, who underwent various strange adventures ; not willing to survive Mark Antony, she is said to have killed herself by causing an asp to bite her breast. This extraordinary death of Cleopatra has been pictured by several artists.

72. *What was the fate of Octavianus ?*—By the death of Mark Antony, he remained sole ruler, when he assumed the designation of Augustus Cæsar, or more simply Augustus—a word signifying the 'venerable' or 'sacred'—under which name he was the first of the Roman emperors.

73. *How long did the Roman republic last ?*—From 509 to 30 B.C., or 479 years.

74. *When Augustus became emperor, what was the extent of the Roman dominions ?*—They comprehended Italy, Gaul,

Iberia or Spain, Greece, and some other countries in Europe, also most of northern Africa, and extensive territories in Asia, including Palestine.

75. *Who was Mæcenæ?*—He was a wealthy Roman statesman, in the reign of Augustus; retiring from public life, he kept an open table for men of parts at his fine house on the Esquiline Hill, and was renowned as a munificent patron of literature.

76. *What is meant by the 'Augustan age?'*—It was the period that elapsed during the reign of Augustus, who ruled with great clemency and discretion, reformed innumerable abuses, embellished Rome, and was a patron of art and learning, which under him greatly flourished.

77. *When did Augustus die?*—He died 14 A.D., and was universally lamented both as an emperor and as pontifex maximus. In dying, his last words to his attendants were: 'Have I played my part well? If so, applaud me.'

78. *Who were the successors of Augustus?*—His four immediate successors were Tiberius, Caligula, Claudius, and Nero, who became emperors from some claim of relationship to the family of Augustus; afterwards, the appointment to the office of emperor lay with the army or was given to the person who rendered himself most popular by profuse expenditure on public feasts, pageants, and gladiatorial exhibitions.

79. *What was latterly the favourite cry of the Romans?*—It was *Panis et Circenses*, 'Bread and Circuses'—meaning, that all they wanted was to be fed and amused with shows at the public expense.

80. *Who was the Præfectus Urbis?*—Under the emperors, he was the magistrate who had charge of the whole city of Rome—the term *urbis* signifying 'of the city.' The modern French word *préfet* is from the *præfectus* of the Romans.

81. *Were the Roman emperors successively called Cæsar?*—Yes; they were all called Cæsar, that being perpetuated as an imperial distinction, and as such is referred to in the New Testament; for example, Christ holding up a Roman coin, and, pointing to the inscription on it, said: 'Render unto Cæsar the things which be Cæsar's, and unto God the things which be God's' (Luke xx. 25).

82. *In what reign was Christ crucified at Jerusalem?*—In the reign of the Emperor Tiberius, 33 A.D.

83. *What was the original name of Caligula?*—It was Caius Cæsar, to whom the soldiers gave the name Caligula, or 'Little Boots,' on account of his wearing small boots, called

caligæ. Under this surname, after becoming emperor, he committed most extraordinary excesses of folly and tyranny ; one of his wishes was that the whole Roman people had but one head, that he might be able to cut it off at a single blow.

84. *What was the name of Caligula's favourite horse ?*—It was *Incitatus* ; this animal had a house and servant, and was fed from marble and gold vessels ; Caligula also caused him to be admitted into the college of priests, and appointed him consul. This emperor, who was in reality a madman, was murdered in the fourth year of his reign, 41 A. D.

85. *What was the character of Nero ?*—He began his reign with remarkable clemency, but afterwards became a sensual and cruel tyrant, and for mere amusement caused Rome to be set on fire ; anticipating punishment for his crimes, he committed suicide, 68 A. D.

86. *Who succeeded Nero ?*—Galba, Otho, Vitellus, Vespasian, Titus, Domitian, Nerva, Trajan, Hadrian, Antoninus Pius, and about twenty others, until Domitian and Maximian.

87. *Did the senate continue to act under the emperors ?*—It existed till the last, but only as a dependent body, which obsequiously registered the decrees of the emperors.

88. *When was Britain added to the Roman dominion ?*—It was subdued by Agricola, about 70 A. D., in the reign of Vespasian, the country having been previously visited by Julius Cæsar.

89. *What was the 'Ultima Thule' of the Romans ?*—It was the most remote northern island with which they were acquainted, but which island that was is uncertain. It is generally thought to have been one of the Orkney or Shetland Islands, lying north from Scotland.

90. *By what means did the Romans achieve their extraordinary conquests ?*—It was by their military skill and discipline, along with an inordinate ambition and spirit of patriotism.

91. *What was a Roman legion ?*—It was an army consisting originally of 4500 soldiers ; but this number was latterly raised to 6000, who were divided into ten cohorts. The soldiers, who were called legionaries, were of two chief classes—trained men on foot, and *equites*, or cavalry ; besides which there was a body of *velites*, or skirmishers. Each legion carried its distinguishing standard.

92. *What was a centurion ?*—Centurions were of different ranks ; a chief centurion was equivalent to a modern lieutenant-colonel, and beneath him there were second centurions and other inferior officers.

93. *What was the equipment of the Roman legionaries?*—They wore a plumed helmet and breastplate, and carried a javelin, which they threw on advancing; but their chief reliance was on a short double-edged sword. It was the dreadful onset with their short swords that gave the Romans their numerous victories.

94. *What was the form of the Roman standards?*—They consisted of a spear-staff, bearing on the top some kind of emblem, beneath which was usually a small banner. The emblem was in some cases a ball, significant of universal dominion, but more commonly it was an eagle in gold, about the size of a pigeon. The ordinary inscription on the banner consisted of the letters, S. P. Q. R. While such were the principal military standards, many of a subordinate kind were employed to distinguish the cohorts, also as signals for the soldiers to assemble, advance, or retreat.

95. *What is the meaning of the letters S. P. Q. R. on Roman standards?*—These letters are an abbreviation of SENATUS POPULUSQUE ROMANUS, signifying 'The Roman Senate and People.'



Roman Standard.

96. *What was the population of the Roman empire?*—After the conquest of Britain, the population numbered upwards of a hundred millions, composed of various nations, and speaking various languages; but of that vast population, it is calculated that fully one half were slaves.

97. *Were the Roman slaves black?*—Only those brought from Africa were black; in Rome, there were many white slaves who had been brought from Greece, Gaul, Britain, and other countries, to minister to the luxurious and cruel habits of the people.

98. *What was the size and condition of Rome?*—In the first century of our era, Rome attained to a vast size and degree of magnificence; and its population was about two millions.

99. *Mention some of the chief places and buildings.*—The Capitol, the Roman Forum, the Coliseum, and the Pantheon, also numerous palaces, temples, theatres, baths, triumphal arches, bridges, and monumental pillars.

100. *What were the seven hills of Rome?*—The Capitoline, the Palatine, the Aventine, the Cælian, the Esquiline, the Viminal, and the Quirinal, all situated on the left bank of the Tiber. Besides these, there is a hill called the Pincian; but it was not originally included in the city.

101. *What is the height of these hills?*—Only from a hundred and twenty to a hundred and eighty feet above the level of the Campus Martius.

102. *What is the Campus Martius?*—It is a level plain on the left bank of the Tiber, originally used for martial exercises, but it was afterwards occupied by the Pantheon and other public buildings, and on it are built the principal streets of modern Rome.

103. *What was the Pantheon?*—It was a magnificent temple erected by Agrippa in the centre of the Campus Martius, and was dedicated by Augustus, 7 B.C., in honour of the gods who were connected with the family of Julius Cæsar. The term *Pantheon* is from the Greek *pan*, all, and *theos*, god. The Pantheon is the only building of ancient Rome which now remains entire.

104. *What was the Capitol?*—It was the state fortress of ancient Rome, built on the Capitoline Hill, and included the temple of Jupiter Capitolinus, which served as a national sanctuary; adjoining was the Temple of Concord, where the senate usually met.

105. *What was the Tarpeian rock?*—It was a precipice on the side of the Capitoline Hill, and took its name from Tarpeia, daughter of the governor of the citadel, who opened the gates to the Sabines, and was killed by being smothered beneath their shields. It became the practice to throw state criminals down the Tarpeian precipice.

106. *What was the Roman forum?*—It was an extensive enclosure embellished with handsome buildings, where orators delivered addresses to the civic magistracy and citizens, and which otherwise was a place of public resort; here, likewise, were held courts of justice. Besides the Roman forum, there were other forums used for similar purposes.

107. *What were the rostra in the forums?*—They were the scaffolds from which the orators delivered their harangues, and hence our word *rostrum*.

108. *What was the origin of the term rostra?*—Rostra signified primarily the beaks of birds. It became a practice to fashion the prows of war-vessels as the beaks of these animals, and being called rostra, that was the secondary meaning of

the term. The Romans, under the republic, having captured a ship-of-war, brought its rostrum to Rome as a trophy, and placing it in the forum as a scaffold for orators, the term rostrum (plural, *rostra*) came at length to signify a kind of stage or pulpit for speakers.

109. *What was the Coliseum?*—Coliseum, or Colosseum, is the modern name for an amphitheatre or circus of enormous



The Coliseum.

dimensions begun by Vespasian and completed by Titus, 80 A.D. ; it covered five acres, and contained seats for 87,000 persons ; part of it still exists as an extraordinary architectural curiosity.

110. *Were there any other amphitheatres?*—Yes ; there were several in different Roman cities in Italy and the provinces. The term amphitheatre is from the Greek, and signifies a theatre with ascending seats all round, from which spectators may look down on a cleared central space where spectacles were exhibited.

111. *What were the chief spectacles in the Roman amphitheatres?*—They consisted of combats of men with ferocious wild animals, brought from Asia and Africa for the purpose, also fights of gladiators.

112. *Who were the gladiators?*—They were for the most

part slaves or prisoners of war, who were obliged to fight in mortal combat for the public entertainment; they fought naked and in pairs, each being provided with a sword and shield. The term *gladiator* is from the Latin *gladius*, a sword.

113. *Did the gladiators exhibit at private entertainments?*—Yes; it was customary for persons of distinction to employ them to fight and kill each other for the amusement of guests, at funeral ceremonies, marriages, and private feasts—these barbarous sports tending greatly to brutalise the feelings of the people.

114. *When a gladiator at the public shows was disabled, how was he treated?*—If the spectators thought he had fought well, and was worthy of being spared, they turned up their thumbs; if, on the contrary, they wished him to be killed, they turned their thumbs downwards, when his antagonist gave him a mortal stab.



Dying Gladiator.

115. *What memorial have we of these frightful cruelties?*—The figure of the dying gladiator, a very fine piece of ancient sculpture, casts of which are well known.

116. *What modern poet has written touching lines on the figure of the dying gladiator?*—Lord Byron; the following are the lines, which occur in *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*:

‘I see before me the gladiator lie :
 He leans upon his hand ; his manly brow
 Consents to death, but conquers agony,
 And his drooped head sinks gradually low :
 And through his side the last drops, ebbing slow
 From the red gash, fall heavy, one by one,
 Like the first of a thunder-shower ; and now
 The arena swims around him ; he is gone,
 Ere ceased the inhuman shout which hailed the wretch
 who won.

He heard it, but he heeded not ; his eyes
 Were with his heart, and that was far away :
 He recked not of the life he lost nor prize,
 But where his rude hut by the Danube lay ;
 There were his young barbarians all at play,
 There was their Dacian mother—he, their sire,
 Butchered to make a Roman holiday.
 All this rushed with his blood. Shall he expire,
 And unavenged ? Arise, ye Goths, and glut your ire !'

117. *How did the Romans maintain their conquests ?*—They kept the countries they conquered by means of garrisons, military colonies, and permanent camps, also by constructing roads and establishing a system of posts for conveying intelligence. Except where interrupted by seas, the Roman roads extended from the Firth of Forth in Scotland to the banks of the Euphrates.

118. *Did the Romans reckon distances by miles ?*—Yes ; they had a length, called the *mille passuum*, or 1000 paces, from which comes our word *mile* ; the Roman mile, however, was only about 1618 yards. All distances throughout the empire were reckoned from an ornamental structure on the Capitoline Hill, called the *Milliarium Aureum*, which may be translated the *Golden Milestone*.

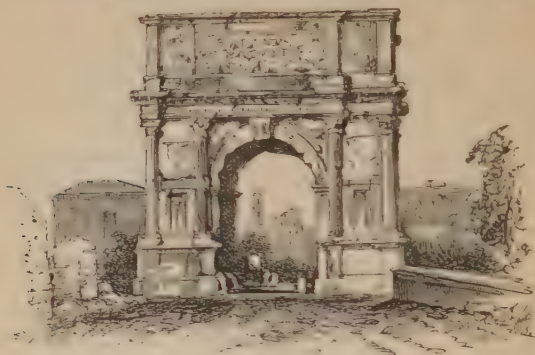
119. *What was the tribute to Rome ?*—It consisted in a heavy tax imposed on all conquered countries, and was sent with plunder of different kinds, such as slaves, cattle, corn, and valuable articles, to Rome, which was enriched and nearly altogether supported at the expense of the whole empire.

120. *Was Jerusalem plundered in that way ?*—Yes ; Titus carried off the whole of the sacred vessels, the silver trumpets, the seven-branched candlesticks, and other articles of value from the temple ; a representation of the triumphal entry of these things into Rome is still seen sculptured on the marble arch which the senate erected in honour of Titus, 70 A. D.

121. *What was the condition of the Christians under the early emperors ?*—They were subjected to various persecutions and cruelties, more particularly those who were brought to Rome. The apostles Peter and Paul are said to have suffered martyrdom at Rome about 66 A. D.

122. *What was the nature of the intercourse between Greece and Rome ?*—After the subjugation of Greece, the Romans had a constant intercourse with that country, from which they derived a knowledge of Greek art, learning, and philosophy, also their fanciful mythological system. Roman civilisation was only a reproduction of that of Greece on a larger scale.

123. *Where did the wealthy Romans build their country villas?*—They selected the country along the Bay of Naples



Arch of Titus.

for some of their favourite resorts. At these places, originally Greek settlements, they built Herculaneum and Pompeii, renovated Neapolis (the modern Naples), and erected splendid buildings at Puteoli, Baiæ, and Cuma.

124. *When were Pompeii and Herculaneum destroyed?*—Both were overwhelmed by eruptions of Vesuvius in 79 A.D.

125. *Where was Puteoli situated?*—It was placed on the sea-shore a few miles from Naples, on the side of the bay opposite to Pompeii, and attained such grandeur and extent as to be called *Pusilla Roma*, or Little Rome. Here the Apostle Paul landed on his way to Rome. Puteoli, sunk to the condition of a small decayed town, is now known as Pozzuoli.

126. *What were the Elysian fields?*—According to Greek and Roman poets, they were the abodes of happy departed spirits, where all was serene and delightful; but the situation of these fields was according to the fancy of the writer. Virgil, in the *Æneid*, places the Elysian fields in the rich plain near Cuma.

127. *What was Tusculum?*—It was a favourite residence of Cicero, situated near the modern town of Frascati, about twelve miles from Rome. Tusculum is famed as having been the place where Cicero, when in retirement, wrote his *Tusculan Disputations*—a work of classic interest.

128. *Where was Hadrian's country residence?*—It was situated near Tivoli, in a valley named Tempé, from the celebrated

Tempé in Greece. There, including palaces, baths, theatre, hippodrome, and other buildings of great magnificence, the villa covered a space of eight to ten miles in circumference. The whole that now remains of this once magnificent residence is a few shattered ruins.

129. *What was the dress of the Romans?*—The patricians and higher order of citizens wore loose garments, the most conspicuous article of attire being the *toga*, a mantle of fine linen or wool. The common people wore a loose tunic, with a girdle round the waist. The Roman soldiers wore a dress resembling that of the modern Highland soldiers. Sandals for the feet were worn by all Romans of distinction; but clothing for the legs came into use only in the later times of the empire.

130. *What is meant by being 'raised to the purple?'*—Among the ancients, purple was a colour highly esteemed, and for the dyeing of which the people of Tyre gained celebrity. Robes of this precious colour were worn by the Roman emperors, and, to be 'raised to the purple,' was equivalent to being made emperor and Pontifex Maximus. From this origin the Roman pontiffs and bishops derive the custom of wearing purple in some part of their dress.

131. *What was the favourite wine of the Romans?*—It was the Falernian wine, produced in a district of Campania, known as the *Falernus Ager*, or Falernian Field. This wine has been extolled by Virgil, Horace, and other poets for its fine qualities.

132. *For what was the laurel employed by the Romans?*—The leaves of the sweet bay, or *Laurus nobilis*, were used by the ancient Greeks and Romans to decorate temples and twine in wreaths round the brows of victors and poets.

133. *What were the columbaria of the Romans?*—Columbaria was the name given to vaults for the reception of urns containing the ashes of the dead; the ashes of each person having been reduced to a small quantity by burning the body on a funeral-pile. The term columbaria is from the Latin *columba*, a pigeon, and was so applied because the receptacles for the urns resembled pigeon holes. Several ancient columbaria exist near Rome till the present day, and are visited by strangers as a curiosity. The ashes of favourite dogs appear to have been allowed a place in the columbaria, but the bodies of slaves were thrown promiscuously into pits.

134. *When did the Roman empire begin to decline?*—Though shaken by scandalous disorders in the reigns of Tiberius,

Caligula, Claudius, and Nero, the empire recovered under Trajan, and his successors Hadrian and the Antonines; but it irrecoverably declined from about the reign of Caracalla, 211—217 A.D. Aurelius, 275—276 A.D., was an able and energetic emperor; but after him the descent towards ruin became very rapid, and the division of the empire under Diocletian, about 284 A.D., might be called the finishing blow to its ancient power and grandeur.

135. *Who was Constantine?*—He was the son of Constantius, successor to the joint emperors Diocletian and Maximian. Constantine succeeded his father (who died at York, 306 A.D.) as Cæsar. More from policy than conviction, as it is thought, he stopped the persecution of the Christians, and closing the pagan temples, made Christianity the state religion. This important event occurred 324 A.D. Constantine died 337 A.D.

136. *Who was Helena?*—She was the widow of Constantius, and mother of Constantine. The 'Empress' Helena was canonised by the church for her zeal in the advancement of religion, and her many acts of piety and munificence.

137. *From whom does Constantinople take its name?*—From Constantine, who founded it on the site of ancient Byzantium.

138. *Who was Julian?*—He was a nephew of Constantine, who was elected emperor by his soldiers 360 A.D., and having restored paganism, he is known in history as 'Julian the Apostate.' He was killed in battle, 363 A.D., and Christianity was immediately re-established.

139. *When was the Roman empire divided?*—It was divided, 364 A.D., when Rome became the capital of the Western, and Constantinople the capital of the Eastern portion. From this time, Roman history proper is confined to the Western empire; while the history of the Eastern part, under the name Byzantine empire, belongs to Medieval History.

140. *Who were the Goths?*—They were a people originally from the shores of the Baltic, who, under the name of Visigoths and Ostrogoths, pressed on the northern and eastern parts of the Roman empire, and, as did also other barbarous peoples—Vandals, Franks, Burgundians, Alani, and Huns—whose efforts, though not directed by any unity of purpose, had the effect of utterly dismembering and destroying the empire of the Cæsars.

141. *Who was Alaric?*—He was king of the Visigoths, a branch of the Gothic tribes which had been allowed to settle in Thrace (a district north-west of Constantinople). Taking advantage of the dissensions in the western empire, Alaric

conducted an army into Italy, and captured Rome, which he sacked and partly burned, 410 A.D.

142. *Who was Attila?*—He was a king or leader of the Huns, who committed the most insulting and savage barbarities in his invasions of Gaul and Italy, 450 to 453 A.D. Any military invader of a country who ruthlessly robs and slaughters the inhabitants, is styled ‘a modern Attila.’

143. *Who was Romulus Augustulus?*—He was the last emperor of the West, and was deposed, 476 A.D., by Odoacer at the head of a mixed horde of imperial mercenaries, most of whom were probably Visigoths. The name Augustulus signifies ‘Augustus the little,’ and was given to the emperor in contempt. With the deposition of Romulus, the empire ended. Reckoning from Romulus, 753 B.C. to 476 A.D., the Roman power had lasted 1229 years.

144. *On the dissolution of the Roman power, how many great empires had perished?*—Four are usually reckoned—the Assyrian, Persian, Græco-Macedonian, and Roman.

145. *What was the general character of the ancient Romans?*—Originally, they were one of the noblest nations of antiquity, surpassing any of whom we read in iron strength of will, grave earnestness of temperament, patriotic ardour, and general integrity of character; they were, however, stern and imperious, and latterly cruel, selfish, and depraved in manners. In the grandeur which they attained by their conquests and works of art they excite the wonder of the modern world, but without raising any sentiment of esteem, or of pity for the ruin which ultimately overtook them.

146. *What moral may be drawn from the fall of the Roman empire?*—It is, that national power, supported by continued violence and injustice, and associated with universal corruption of manners, must inevitably, as bearing the elements of dissolution, come to a miserable end. Conquering all the countries within their reach by their military skill and courage, the Romans had no other object than to attain power, and lay the subjugated provinces under material contribution.

147. *Were the Roman conquests of any immediate benefit?*—Yes; they were of value incidentally. Though the conquests were most oppressive, the subjugated nations acquired some knowledge of the useful arts, more particularly road-making, building, agriculture, and horticulture, from the Roman occupation: these nations also became acquainted with the

Roman law and municipal institutions, which they less or more retained after the dissolution of the empire.

148. *Do the Romans deserve praise for not interfering with the religious observances of the nations they conquered?*—No; in ancient times, the people of one country did not concern themselves about the religion of other countries, and the Romans were no exception to the rule. We can give them no credit for toleration, for it amounted, in some cases, to a perversion of justice.

149. *Give an instance.*—The Roman proconsul, Pilate, found no crime or political offence proved against Jesus, yet, at the instigation of a few Jewish priests and an ignorant rabble, he sanctioned his death by crucifixion—the Roman power thus disgracefully lending itself to an action, which it was its duty, as it ought to have been its proud privilege, peremptorily to avert.

150. *If the Romans were so tolerant, why did they persecute the early Christians?*—Because, in preaching the Gospel, the apostolic missionaries necessarily exposed the superstitious errors of the Roman polytheism, which was identified with the authority of the state.

151. *Was the Roman authority of no value as respects Christianity?*—It was of much value after the reign of Constantine, by securing protection to apostolic missionaries in disseminating a knowledge of the Gospel; in point of fact, the rule and influence of the church, already established at the fall of the empire, saved Italy and the neighbouring provinces from universal anarchy, and smoothed the way for new political systems.

152. *In what way has modern society been benefited by the ancient Romans?*—It has derived benefit from the Roman literature, law, and arts; likewise from the Latin language, which, though now a dead tongue, continues to be studied for its elegance, and its connection with modern languages. We are likewise indebted to them for the letters known as Roman capitals.

153. *Mention some of the noted Roman writers.*—Cicero, Livy, Sallust, Cæsar, Tacitus, Seneca, Ovid, Horace, and Virgil.¹

154. *Had the Romans a knowledge of physical science?*—Their knowledge of some departments of science was exceedingly imperfect. They believed that the earth was the centre of the universe, and that the sun, planets, and stars revolved

¹ See Greek and Roman Literature, in Miscellaneous Questions.

around it; all they knew of geography was confined to the countries stretching from India to Britain; of geology, chemistry, and some other sciences of recent growth, they were, of course, entirely ignorant; and the most learned Romans—as well as Greeks—clung to superstitions connected with natural phenomena, that are now rejected and laughed at by all but the most illiterate.

155. *What was the practice of the Greeks and Romans as regards education?*—It was to confine instruction to the higher classes. As to educating the humbler orders—the bulk of whom were held as slaves and treated little better than cattle—and thereby improving the general tone of society, the Greeks and Romans had not the most distant idea. There was thus nothing expansive in the ancient civilisation; it was a thing of classes and castes—a mere superficial gloss—and, unsupported, it sunk and perished.

Medieval History.

1. *What is Medieval History?*—It is the history of the interval between the fall of the Roman empire, 476, and the revival of learning about 1450. From being *between* the close of one species of civilisation and the rise of another, this interval of nearly a thousand years is usually styled the 'Middle Ages.'

2. *What is meant by the 'Dark Ages?'*—The 'Dark Ages' were the early portion of the middle ages, when learning was nearly extinct, and the light of Christianity had not yet been generally diffused.

3. *What was the Byzantine empire?*—It was the eastern division of the ancient Roman empire, called Byzantine, from Byzantium, the former name of Constantinople, and which dates from 395 A.D., when Theodosius the Great died, and left two sons, Honorius and Arcadius, the former of whom became Emperor of the West, and the latter the first distinctive Emperor of the East.

4. *How long did the Byzantine empire continue to exist?*—It lasted under various changes of dynasty till 1453, and embraced the reigns of about ninety emperors, few of whom were of any note.

5. *What was the character of the Byzantine empire?*—It was of a Greek and Asiatic character, and the Greek language was spoken.

6. *Did the Byzantine empire offer a refuge for learning on the fall of the Western empire?*—It did so to some extent, and at Constantinople the arts and literature were for a time cultivated; but during nearly its whole history this fragmentary portion of the old Roman empire was badly governed, and has left little that commands respect.

7. *Who was Theodoric the Great?*—He was a king of the Ostrogoths, who, actuated by ambition, invaded Italy, conquered the Visigoths, and established a new kingdom, 493. Theodoric ruled with much wisdom, but at his death, 526, Italy lapsed into a state of anarchy, and an effort was made by Justinian to conquer it.

8. *Who was Justinian?*—He was one of the Byzantine emperors who reigned at the middle of the sixth century, and is famed for his sagacious policy, more particularly for his code of Roman law, which he caused to be digested in several books, known as the *Pandects and Institutes of Justinian*. By Justinian the church of St Sophia was built at Constantinople, which he decorated with oriental magnificence, 537.

9. *Who was Belisarius?*—He was an eminent general employed by Justinian in wars against the Vandals in Africa, and also against the Ostrogoths in Italy. Partly by the generalship of Belisarius Italy was attached to the empire of Justinian, but for want of reinforcements he gave up his command. Unjustly accused of conspiracy, Belisarius was imprisoned, but was soon restored to liberty; he died 564.

10. *Was Belisarius deprived of sight?*—Such cruelty is said by some writers to have been perpetrated, and it is added that Belisarius was so impoverished as to ask alms as a blind mendicant; but these circumstances rest on no credible authority, and are believed to be the fictions of novelists.

11. *Who was the Exarch of Ravenna?*—While Italy remained a dependency of the Byzantine empire, it was governed by a species of viceroy deputed from Constantinople, who resided at Ravenna, and was called an Exarch.

12. *Who were the Lombards?*—They were a German nation settled on the Danube, who invaded and took possession of the north of Italy, making Pavia their capital, 568. From them is derived the name Lombardy. The Lombard

kingdom was originally composed of a number of dukedoms—the dukes paying sometimes a real, and sometimes a nominal homage to ‘a king.’

13. *Who were the Franks?*—They were a confederation of tribes in Northern Germany, who, in the course of the fifth century, invaded Gaul, and founded the kingdom which from their name became afterwards known as France.

14. *What was the condition of Gaul at that time?*—It was occupied by the Gauls, a Celtic race, whose habits had been considerably modified by long intercourse with the Romans. The country being overrun and subjugated by the Franks, there grew up a language composed of Celtic, German, and Latin elements, which constitutes the basis of the modern French.

15. *Who was Clovis?*—He was the first king of the Franks in Gaul; at his death, his dominions were divided, but were reunited under Clotaire, 558, from which time the kingdom increased in dignity and importance.

16. *What was the Merovingian dynasty?*—It was the first race of Frankish kings, and was called Merovingian, from Merowig, grandfather of Clovis. This dynasty ruled from 486 till 752.

17. *Had Christianity spread over Gaul?*—Yes; the knowledge and practice of Christianity had spread over the greater part of Europe previous to the sixth century, everywhere expelling paganism, and greatly contributing to social melioration.

18. *What at this time was the condition of the church?*—The church had at this time grown to be a great spiritual hierarchy, which, through pious gifts, had been invested with lands and other kinds of endowment for its support.

19. *What was the Latin Church?*—It was that branch of the church presided over by the bishop of Rome, which in its services employed the Latin language, and in this and some other respects differed from the Greek Church of Constantinople.

20. *What was the bishop of Rome usually styled?*—He was called the Pope, a term signifying Papa, or Father. When the Roman emperors dropped the title of Pontifex Maximus, the bishop of Rome assumed it as expressive of his claim to supreme ecclesiastical authority.

21. *What were Councils of the church?*—They were assemblies of clergy held from time to time to settle points of doctrine, to determine what scriptural books were canonical

and trustworthy, and to organise and discipline various matters of ecclesiastical government.

22. *When and where did these Councils take place?*—There were numerous councils, provincial and general, in the third, fourth, and fifth centuries. The most famous of the general councils was that convened by Constantine at Nicæa, in Asia Minor, 325. At this council, which was attended by 318 bishops, the Nicene Creed was authorised as a confession of faith.

23. *What were Monasteries?*—They were establishments for religious retirement. At first, the monks, or inmates of monasteries, were generally laymen, but in time they were admitted to priests' orders. They were governed by particular rules under a superior.

24. *Who was St Benedict?*—He was an Italian of the sixth century, who organised the monastic system of the West. The monks of his order, or Benedictine monks, became noted for their prosecution of learning, and also for their great industry in writing copies of books to be employed in the religious services.

25. *Who were the 'regular clergy'?*—They were the clergy who lived under regular rules in monasteries, while bishops and parish priests were styled 'secular clergy,' from living in the world.

26. *What were Abbeys?*—They were great monastic establishments, under the government of an abbot.

27. *What were Cathedrals?*—A cathedral was the chief church in the diocese of a bishop. The word cathedral is derived from *cathedra*, which in Greek signifies a seat or bench. The term had its origin in the practice of bishops occupying a higher seat in the assembly of clergy of their dioceses. The building of cathedrals and abbeys was a work of piety and munificence in the middle ages, from about the sixth to the thirteenth century; those of latest erection were structures of great architectural elegance.

28. *What was the first great division in the church?*—It was the separation of the Latin and Greek churches; after various dissensions about points of doctrine and other matters, and



Benedictine Monk.

after frequent attempts at reconciliation, extending over several centuries, a final rupture took place at the fall of the Byzantine empire, 1453.

29. *Who were the Patriarchs of Constantinople?*—They were the bishops who presided over the Eastern or Greek Church at Constantinople, under the protection of the Byzantine emperors.

30. *Who were the Iconoclasts?*—The Greek term Iconoclasts signifies Image-breakers, and was applied to a party of religious enthusiasts, who, at the instigation of the Byzantine emperor, Leo Isaurus, 726, destroyed the images in the churches at Constantinople, from which the frenzy spread to Italy, where, however, it was resisted by the Latin Church and the people generally.

31. *How did the pope encounter the Greek Iconoclasts?*—He called in the aid of Astolphus, king of the Lombards, who expelled the Exarchs of Ravenna; but as Astolphus tried to keep Central Italy, the pope invited the assistance of Pepin, king of the Franks. Pepin compelled the Lombards to cede the territory they had acquired, and then presented it to the pope as a temporal sovereignty, 756.

32. *What very remarkable event occurred in the seventh century?*—The origin and spread of Mohammedanism, or religion of Mohammed; this religion was properly called *Islam*, such being an Arabic word signifying 'entire submission to the will of God.' From *Islam*, likewise, comes *Moslem* and *Musselman*, applied to the professors of the religion of Mohammed.

33. *Who was Mohammed?*—He was an Arabian, born at Mecca about 570. Able and ingenious, though not learned, he devised a religion of pure theism, or belief in one God, whose prophet he declared himself to be. Encountering persecution, he fled to Medina, 16th July 622, and this date of his flight, called the *Hejira*, has ever since been recognised as the commencement of the Mohammedan era.

34. *Who were the Califs?*—They were the successors of Mohammed, who, uniting religious zeal with temporal power as sovereigns in Arabia, extended Mohammedanism by a series of extraordinary conquests, beginning with Mesopotamia and Syria, which were lost to the Byzantine empire.

35. *Who was Omar?*—He was the second Calif, who added Palestine, Egypt, and the whole north of Africa to the Mohammedan conquests. Receiving the submission of Jerusalem, 637,

he caused a mosque, which bears his name, to be built on the site of the temple of Solomon.

36. *When Egypt fell into the possession of Omar, did he destroy the great library at Alexandria?*—No; a story to that effect, long current, is found to be incorrect. The famous library of Alexandria had been previously destroyed, and as a seat of learning that city had declined by the rising importance of Constantinople about the fourth century.

37. *When did the Mohammedans establish themselves in Spain?*—In 711, a branch of the Arabs, under the name of Saracens—a word signifying ‘eastern people’—conquered a portion of Spain, and there founded a power, known in history as the ‘kingdom of the Moors.’

38. *Who was Charles Martel?*—He was chief officer in the household of the Frankish king, and virtually ruler of the Franks. He defeated the Saracens in a great battle, between Tours and Poitiers, 732, and arrested for ever the progress of Mohammedanism in Western Europe.

39. *Who were the Abbasides?*—They were an Arabian dynasty, who ruled as califs of Bagdad, 749—1258; devoting themselves to the cultivation of learning and the arts, there ensued in the eighth century an extraordinary intellectual outburst among Arabians in Asia, and Moors in Spain, of which there survive various memorials.

40. *Mention one or two things for which we are indebted to the Arabians.*—Modern Europe is indebted to them for the common numerals or figures—hence called Arabic numerals—which have superseded the clumsy notation of the Romans, and greatly facilitated arithmetic; to them is also due our knowledge of algebra, or the system of computation by symbolic letters and marks.

41. *What was the Carlovingian dynasty?*—It was the race of kings in France commencing with Pepin, a son of Charles Martel; and hence the dynasty was called Carlovingian; it lasted from 752 till 986.

42. *Who was Charlemagne?*—He was one of the sons of Pepin, king of the Franks, and ultimately inherited the whole of his dominions, which he vastly extended by conquests in Germany, Italy, and other countries. On account of his power, learning, and various high qualities, he is considered the most illustrious monarch of the middle ages.

43. *What was Charlemagne styled?*—He was at first styled king of the Franks, to which title was afterwards added emperor of the Romans.

44. *How did Charlemagne become Emperor of the Romans?*—Having in the year 800 completed his conquests in Italy, he secured the popes in their possessions, and even added to them by new gifts of territory. Grateful for his services to the church, Pope Leo III., amidst general acclamation, put a crown on the head of Charlemagne on Christmas-day, while the people were worshipping in St Peter's, and saluted him as 'Carolus I., Cæsar Augustus,' or Emperor of the Romans.

45. *Did this ceremony impart any power to Charlemagne?*—No; the title of Cæsar or emperor only added lustre to his name, as in a sense reviving the greatness of the ancient empire. Though but an empty name, the title of emperor or *kaiser* (German for Cæsar), was borne by the sovereigns of the so-called 'German Empire' until recent times; till this day, the crown of Charlemagne is preserved at Vienna.

46. *Who was Alcuin?*—He was a learned ecclesiastic, an Englishman by birth; he resided at the court of Charlemagne, who from him acquired a knowledge of grammar, rhetoric, music, astronomy, and natural history, also the art of writing. Alcuin is particularly noted for having written an entire copy of the Scriptures with the pen, a labour which occupied many years. This greatly-prized copy of the Bible is now in the British Museum.

47. *When did Charlemagne die?*—He died 814, and was entombed in a vault of the cathedral of Aix-la-Chapelle. His body, dressed in robes of state, was seated in a marble chair, with the sceptre in his hand, the gospel on his knee, a piece of the holy cross on his head, and a pilgrim's scrip attached to his girdle. After about 350 years, his bones were gathered up, and enshrined in a casket of gold and silver.

48. *Who was Louis le Débonnaire?*—He was the son and successor of Charlemagne. Being unable to govern the vast empire, he partitioned it among his three sons, Lothaire, Louis, and Charles. This last, styled Charles the Bald, received the kingdom of the Franks, which now for the first time was called France, 843.

49. *Did this division terminate the dismemberment of Charlemagne's great empire?*—No; dissensions broke out among local dukes and chieftains, and in a short time the greater part of the empire was shattered into independent fragments. To this disruption is chiefly to be traced the origin of many of the petty kingdoms and duchies in modern Germany.

50. *What was the Capetian dynasty?*—It was the third

dynasty of Frankish or French kings, and began in 987 with Hugh Capet, Count of Paris, one of the great territorial barons of the time. Capet's seizure of the crown, in prejudice of Charles of Lorraine, the nearest heir of the Carlovingian dynasty, was in reality a usurpation.

51. *What was the Feudal System?*—It was a method by which sovereigns made gifts of lands to their leading captains (*duces*, 'dukes') and other adherents, on condition that they and their heirs should render military service to the crown. It began about the ninth century, and spread over the greater part of Western Europe, including the British Islands.

52. *What was a Fief?*—It was a piece of land or domain held by feudal tenure, and those who held it were styled vassals. As regards the greater vassals, they exercised almost independent authority within their fiefs, but rendered at least a nominal homage to the king as their *suzerain*, and were bound to attend state ceremonials.

53. *Give some examples of large fief-holders.*—France offers some remarkable examples. In the middle ages that country comprehended Provence, Navarre, Burgundy, Lorraine, and various other great fiefs, the rulers of which owed allegiance to the 'king of France' as suzerain. The extinction of these fiefs, and the consolidation of France, are events of modern times.

54. *Had the great fief-holders subordinate vassals?*—Yes; the system of holding lands on condition of rendering military service went down and down from one to another, till at length society consisted of a series of dependent vassals, all connected with each other, and holding from the crown as a central power.

55. *How were wars conducted under the feudal system?*—By the sovereign summoning his vassals, who were generally the chief nobles of the kingdom, to appear in the field at a certain time, with a certain military retinue; and these nobles calling in the same way on the lesser proprietors, they in turn summoned the farmers and labourers, by which means a great army was raised at scarcely any expense to the crown.

56. *What were the disadvantages of the feudal system?*—It raised up a body of powerful feudal chiefs, who built fortified castles, and besides levying war against each other, and oppressing their unfortunate dependents, often held the crown at defiance.

57. *Why did the sovereigns not keep the feudal chiefs in proper subjection?*—They were not always able to do so; they had

no standing army, nor indeed any large revenue wherewith to hire soldiers. Much of the history of the middle ages consists of unseemly contests between kings and their great vassals.

58. *What were Free Cities?*—They were certain large towns in various countries in Europe which possessed the privilege of self-government and of regulating their own affairs, yielding allegiance only to the sovereign.

59. *Were these privileges of ancient date?*—Yes; in some instances they dated from the time of the ancient Romans; but in the greater number of cases, the privileges were conferred by the emperors after the introduction of the feudal system, in order to rear up communities who would aid them against the encroachments of the greater vassals.

60. *Mention some of the old and important free cities in Continental Europe.*—Venice, Genoa, Florence, Frankfurt, Cologne, Nürnberg, Liege, Hamburg, and Lubeck.

61. *What were Guilds?*—They were corporations or communities of traders in the free cities and towns, membership in which took place by apprenticeship and otherwise. Each guild exercised a monopoly in its own particular craft, in return for which privilege the members usually rendered military service as freemen in defending the towns from attack. Free towns of this kind in England were called Boroughs.

62. *Who was Gregory I.*—He was pope at the end of the sixth century, and was designated 'the Great' on account of his great ability and many estimable qualities. He reformed and organised the ritual of the church, into which he introduced certain choral melodies known as the 'Gregorian Chant'; he also extirpated many ecclesiastical abuses; and among his valuable services to religion was that of deputed Augustine to bring Britain within the pale of Christianity.

63. *What was the influence of the church in the middle ages?*—The church exercised great influence in assuaging discords among contending sovereigns and chiefs, and also comprehended almost the whole learning of the period.

64. *In what way was the church prevalent?*—It was a great confederation of ecclesiastics of every country, distributed over Europe, all engaged in the same intellectual and spiritual labours, all using the Latin tongue for learned purposes, and everywhere spreading a knowledge of letters.

65. *What were Pilgrimages to the Holy Land?*—In the middle ages it was customary for pious persons to make pilgrimages to Jerusalem in order to worship at shrines near

the spot where Christ had been crucified. Pilgrimages were often undertaken as a kind of expiatory sacrifice for the commission of heinous crimes.

66. *What was the costume of pilgrims?*—They were dressed in a loose frock fastened by a girdle, from which was suspended a small bag or scrip for provisions; they carried a staff, generally in the form of a cross, and on the front of their hat they bore a scallop shell as a token of their sanctity—the shell being perhaps symbolic of a maritime journey.



Pilgrim.

67. *Were Christian pilgrims tolerated at Jerusalem after the conquest of Palestine by the califs?*—Yes; they were allowed to come and go on paying a small tribute, until the country fell under the power of the Turks.

68. *Who were the Turks?*—They were a Tartar people professing the Mohammedan faith, who seized Palestine and adjacent regions in the eleventh century, and from their intolerant religious notions rendered Christian pilgrimages impracticable.

69. *What were the Crusades?*—They were expeditions undertaken by several Christian powers in Europe to rescue Palestine from the Turks, and make pilgrimages to the Holy Places available. Each warrior wore a red cross on the shoulder; hence, the French term *croisade*, signifying crossed, and from *croisade* is derived the English word *crusade*.

70. *Who was Peter the Hermit?*—He was a religious enthusiast in France, who by his preaching stimulated the first crusade, which took place in 1096.

71. *Who was Godfrey of Bouillon?*—He was one of the leaders of the first crusade, which succeeded in rescuing Palestine from the Turks, when he was constituted king of Jerusalem.

72. *Who were the Knights Templar?*—They were a religious military order, instituted to defend the holy temple at Jerusalem, and along with the Knights Hospitallers of St John, rendered important services during the crusades.

73. *How many crusades were there altogether?*—There were seven, extending from 1096 till about 1290; but some of

them were of a very imperfect kind, and the whole were attended with a great sacrifice of life.

74. *Who was Saladin?*—He was a young and able Saracen chief, who, at the head of an army of Mohammedans, invaded Palestine, and compelled Jerusalem to surrender, 1187. The Christian powers never regained possession of the country, and matters finally settled down on the old principle of allowing pilgrimages to the Holy Places—a privilege which subsists till the present day.



Knight Templar.

75. *Were the crusades of any value to Europe?*—Though totally failing in their object, they did good service by stimulating inquiry, making the people of one country acquainted with those of other countries, and introducing a knowledge of arts formerly unknown. They also gave a stimulus to chivalry.

76. *What was Chivalry?*—Chivalry is a term derived from the French *chevalier*, a knight—the original of the word being *cheval*, a horse, as knights fought on horseback. Chivalry or knighthood arose in feudal times, when it became a mark of dignity to shew valour and dexterity in arms; a true knight was expected to be not only brave but gentle, and a ready means of succour to all in distress.

77. *What was the influence of chivalry on the condition of women?*—The practice of a high-toned chivalry greatly tended to give women that honourable status, and claim on delicate and proper attention, which they enjoy in all modern nations professing Christianity.



Herald.

78. *What were Heralds?*—They were state officials of great antiquity, for they can be traced in the early history of Greece and Rome. Throughout the middle ages, but more particularly in feudal times, they acted as diplomatists between sovereigns in matters of peace and war.

79. *What were Tournaments?*—They were real or sham fights of knights on horseback, conducted under certain regulations, at which heralds attended to regulate distinctions in rank, and proclaim the names of victors. These amusements, which were in great favour in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, were known as *passages-at-arms*.

80. *What were the general manners and habits of thought in the latter part of the middle ages?*—Though modified by chivalry, and restrained by the church, the manners were rude; there was little safety for life and property; scarcely any but ecclesiastics could read or write; serfdom prevailed; there was a universal belief in fairies, witchcraft, and demonology; famines and plagues were of frequent occurrence; and so feebly was justice administered, that in some continental countries secret tribunals sprung up as a means of redressing private grievances.

81. *Explain the nature of the Secret Tribunals.*—They originated in Germany about the twelfth century, and were there called *Vehmgerichte*, or excommunicatory courts. Possessing no legal authority, they assembled in secret places during the night, and thither persons were brought on whom it was wished to execute vengeance. These courts inspired great terror in the thirteenth and fourteenth, and were not entirely extinguished till the middle of the sixteenth, century.

82. *What was Scandinavia?*—It was a northern region, which now comprehends Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. The Scandinavians were noted for their maritime skill, and under the designation of Vikings, long carried on piratical expeditions against the more southern nations of Western Europe.

83. *What was the religion of the Scandinavians?*—Until about the year 1000, when they embraced Christianity, the Scandinavians believed in a number of fabulous gods, the chief of whom was Odin or Woden. Heroes, at their death, were to be received into Valhalla, the mansion of the gods and the warlike paradise of their wild mythology.

84. *Who were the Normans?*—Normans, or Norsemen, was a name ordinarily given to the Scandinavians; under this appellation they made some formidable descents on France in the ninth and tenth centuries. On one occasion, in 912, they could only be pacified by Charles the Simple ceding to them a portion of his kingdom, which from them was afterwards called Normandy.

85. *Who was Rollo?*—He was the chief of the Normans

at the time they settled in France. Embracing Christianity, he was baptised under the name of Robert, and received the daughter of the king in marriage; subsequently he became the first Duke of Normandy, and, as such, a vassal of the French sovereign.

86. *When was Paper invented?*—It is said to have been invented about the year 1000, but came slowly into use. The Chinese are said to have been acquainted with the art of making paper in very remote times.

87. *When was Gunpowder invented?*—It is generally thought to have been invented by Roger Bacon, an English monk, about 1270; but of this fact there is no certainty. Gunpowder was first used by the English at the battle of Cressy in 1346. The introduction of artillery in time superseded the use of bows and arrows in warfare, and led also to the abandonment of plate armour.

88. *Who was Marco Polo?*—He was a Venetian who travelled in the far East, and invented or first made known in Europe the mariners' compass in 1260. The use of this instrument greatly facilitated maritime enterprise, for hitherto navigators dared scarcely to sail their ships out of sight of land.

89. *Who were the Slavonians?*—They were the progenitors of the Russians, Poles, Bohemians, and some other peoples in the east and north of Europe, who differ in language from nations of the Teutonic or German type. Arising from different historic circumstances, some nations of Slavonic origin belong to the Greek, while others are members of the Latin Church.

90. *Who were the Troubadours?*—They were poets and singers, who flourished from the tenth till the thirteenth century. They belonged chiefly to Provence, in the south of France. The term troubadour is derived from the French *trouver*, to find or invent.



Troubadour.

91. *Who were the Minnesingers?*—They were poets and singers in Germany in the twelfth century; they were generally knights or men of noble descent, and, like the troubadours, sung ballads of their own composition about love, friendship, religion, chivalry, and the

beauties of nature, at the courts of kings and feudal chiefs. The term *minnesinger* is from the old German word *minne*, denoting love.

92. *Who were the Minstrels?*—They were singers and performers on instruments, who wandered about like the troubadours and minnesingers, but were of an inferior social rank, and usually sung the verses of others. The term *minstrel*, from the French *menestrier*, to amuse, was introduced by the Normans into England.

93. *Who were the Scalds?*—They were the minstrels and chroniclers of the Scandinavians, and sung heroic ballads concerning the deeds of heroes and the mythology of the north.

94. *Who were the Bards?*—They were the poets of the Celtic tribes, who sang the exploits of heroes, and were the repositories of popular traditions. The bards continued to flourish till comparatively recent times in Ireland, Wales, and the Highlands of Scotland.

95. *How was the intelligence of events communicated in the middle ages?*—Intelligence was communicated in a very tardy manner, for there was no system of posts, no regular means of conveyance, and no newspapers, because printing was not invented. Sometimes years elapsed before the people of one country knew what had taken place in other countries. The disseminators of ordinary news were wandering minstrels, pilgrims, traders, and mendicants.

96. *Who was Prester John?*—In the middle ages, when many fanciful stories were told by pilgrims and travellers respecting distant countries, a belief was propagated that there was a Christian sovereign in some remote part of Asia called Prester John, a name signifying John the Priest. It is now known that there was no such personage.

97. *When did the Popes reside at Avignon?*—They resided at Avignon, the capital of a district they had acquired, from 1305 till 1377.

98. *Who was Rienzi?*—He was a native of Rome, who, during the residence of the popes at Avignon, endeavoured to restore the ancient Roman republic; as a popular demagogue, he excited great commotion, and attained to considerable authority; he, however, lacked ability, and was, properly speaking, a political fanatic. Rienzi was killed in a tumult, 1354.

99. *What is meant by 'Jacquerie?'*—The Jacquerie were bands of revolted peasants in France, who, in 1358, headed by one Jacques Bonhomme, went about destroying property.

When mobs of rural labourers commit acts of wanton mischief, this French phrase *Jacquerie* is sometimes applied to them.

100. *What was the condition of China in the middle ages?*—It was inhabited by an ingenious race of people, skilled in a variety of arts, who traced their history to a remote antiquity. They professed a religious system, founded on the teaching of a sage called Confucius, who lived about 550 B.C.

101. *Who were the Mongols?*—They were a fierce and powerful Asiatic people, who inhabited Mongolia—a region north of the Great Wall of China.

102. *What was the Great Wall of China?*—It was a wall of great height and breadth, erected by the Chinese on the northern boundary of their country, to defend themselves against Calmucks, Mongols, and other races. This wall was long thought a wonder of the world; it extended 1250 miles from east to west.

103. *Who was Genghis Khan?*—He was a Mongol chief, who made himself master of a great part of Tartary; in 1211, he passed the great wall, and carried his conquests into China. He died 1227, before the conquest of China was completed; and from his ambition and recklessness, he is reputed to have been the means of slaying more than five millions of human beings. The term *khan* signifies chief.

104. *Was China fully subdued by the Mongols?*—Yes; its conquest was completed by the immediate successors of Genghis; they established a Mongol, or West Tartar, dynasty, which reigned from 1279 to 1368, when they were expelled by the Chinese, and the Ming native dynasty succeeded; but in 1644 the Mantchu or East Tartars conquered the country, and have ever since governed it.

105. *What was the condition of India in the middle ages?*—India or Hindustan, was divided into many petty states, and occupied by an ancient people, known as Hindus; they were of simple, frugal, and industrious habits, and adhered to the Brahmanical religious system.

106. *What is the Brahmanical religion?*—It consists mainly in a belief of Brahma, a deity regarded as the creator of the universe, with whom is associated Vishnu, the preserver, and Siva, the destroyer. The religion includes many strange usages, and also the division of the people into castes.

107. *Who was Timur the Tartar?*—He was an Asiatic conqueror, related to the family of Genghis Khan. To Timur was added the term *Lenk*, signifying *Lame*; the

two words, Timur and Lenk, have been corrupted into Tamerlane, by which name Timur is best known. He subdued India in 1402, and, in 1526, his great-grandson, Baber, founded the Mongol dynasty, which lasted until recent times.

108. *Who was the Great Mogul?*—That was an ordinary designation of the sovereigns of India of the Mongol dynasty. They lived in a style of great magnificence at Delhi, which continued to be the capital of India, until the seat of royalty was transferred by Akbar to Agra.

109. *What was the religion of the Mongols?*—It was Moham-
medanism, which by them was introduced into India, but never accepted by the native Hindus.

110. *Who was Buddha?*—He was a meditative recluse in India, who lived about 600 years B.C., and became the founder of a religion known as Buddhism, which in time spread over Burmah and Ceylon, and was largely embraced in China.

111. *What is the nature of Buddhism?*—It is atheistic, and consists mainly of a rigorous system of morals. The aim of its professors is to reach such a degree of purity of life, as will entitle them to enter into Nirvana, by which is meant utter annihilation; and until this is reached, they believe they pass at death into various individuals and animals in succession—this process being what is called the ‘transmigration of souls.’ Along with these extraordinary fancies, Buddhism has the merit of excluding the pernicious system of castes.

112. *Who were the Gypsies?*—They were a body of unsettled wanderers who arrived in Germany and Italy, about 1414, and spread themselves over Europe. They were thought to come from Egypt, and were therefore in England called *gypsies*, and in Spain *gitano*. Their more probable origin is now believed to have been India.

113. *Who was Bajazet?*—He was sultan of the Turks at the end of the fourteenth century, and completed the conquest of the Byzantine territories as far as Constantinople, which was saved only temporarily from the Turkish power.

114. *Who was Mohammed II.?*—He was one of the successors of Bajazet, who destroyed the last fragments of the Byzantine empire, and captured Constantinople, May 29, 1453, since which time that city has formed the capital of the Turkish empire—its cathedral of St Sophia having been transformed into a Mohammedan mosque.

115. *When were the Moors driven out of Spain?*—After a sanguinary war of ten years, the chivalry of Spain captured

Grenada, and the Moors were expelled from the country, 1492. From this time, with an intermission, the peninsula has been divided into the kingdoms of Spain and Portugal.

116. *What was the Alhambra?*—It was the fortress of the Moors in Grenada, and was noted for its magnificence. The Alhambra is preserved as an architectural curiosity.

117. *What were the wars of the Guelfs and Ghibellines?*—They were bitter contests between the civil and spiritual powers which began in the eleventh century, and extended over 300 years, in Italy. The wars took their name from two families, the Guelfs and the Ghibellines, who adopted different sides. The party of the Ghibellines contended for the supremacy of the German emperors in opposition to the pretensions of the pope, and to the claims of the free cities to independence.

118. *When were Universities instituted?*—The first was that of Paris, about 1200, from which time, till about 1450, universities were established in England, Scotland, Italy, Germany, and other countries, everywhere extending the boundaries of knowledge.

119. *When were Bills of Exchange invented?*—They were invented and brought into use by the Jews in the twelfth century, and were first employed in England in 1307. By this ingenious and meritorious invention, money could be made payable in distant countries without transmitting coin; by which foreign trade was greatly facilitated.

120. *Who were the Medici?*—They were a noble and affluent family at the head of public affairs in Florence. The most distinguished was Lorenzo de' Medici, who by his taste and munificence contributed largely to the revival of learning and the fine arts; he died 1492.

121. *When was Printing invented?*—It was invented by John Gutenberg at Mayence, in Germany, about 1437, and came generally into use previous to 1500—its introduction leading to important social changes.

122. *How was the traffic between India and Europe conducted in the middle ages?*—Chiefly overland,

by a tedious and costly means of conveyance. Reaching ports on the Mediterranean, goods were brought in vessels by sea to Venice, and thence distributed over continental Europe.



Gutenberg.

123. *Who was Bartholomew de Diaz?*—He was a Portuguese navigator, who discovered the passage round the Cape of Good Hope in 1486.

124. *Who was Vasco de Gama?*—He was a Portuguese navigator, who was employed by Emanuel, king of Portugal, to attempt a voyage to India by the recently-discovered route round the Cape of Good Hope. With several ships, Vasco successfully performed a voyage to India, the first ever accomplished by the Cape, in 1497. This important event altered the whole current of traffic between Europe and India.

125. *Who was Christopher Columbus?*—He was a native of Genoa, who conceived the idea of reaching India by sailing westward across the Atlantic, but had great difficulty in persuading any one to aid in the enterprise.

126. *Who ultimately favoured the plans of Columbus?*—Ferdinand and Isabella, king and queen of Spain, who appointed him to the command of three small vessels, with which he sailed on the 3d of August 1492.

127. *What were the discoveries of Columbus?*—His first discovery was that of St Salvador, one of the Bahama Islands, on the 12th of October 1492—which is entitled to be called the discovery of America. Columbus, however, thought that this and some other islands which he discovered were connected with India, and hence they were called the West Indies. The last of Columbus's discoveries was that of part of the mainland of South America.

128. *Who was Sebastian Cabot?*—He was a Venetian navigator, to whom has usually been ascribed the discovery of the northern coast of America; but this important discovery was really made by Sebastian's father, Giovanni Cabot, who was sent on an exploratory expedition by Henry VII. of England, and discovered the coast of North America in 1497.

129. *Who was Amerigo Vespucci?*—He was a native of Florence, accomplished in various arts and sciences, who sailed in an expedition in 1499, in the direction of Columbus's discoveries. The land discovered on this occasion was, from his name, called *America*, which has ever since been the name of the great western continent.

130. *Recapitulate the notable events and circumstances which promoted modern civilisation.*—1. The introduction of Arabic numerals into arithmetic; 2. The crusades, along with the rise and spread of chivalry; 3. The songs and music of the troubadours and minstrels; 4. The introduction of the

mariners' compass by Marco Polo ; 5. The institution of universities ; 6. The invention and use of bills of exchange ; 7. The inventions of paper-making and printing ; 8. The revival of learning and arts in Italy ; 9. The discovery of a sea-passage to India by Diaz and Vasco de Gama ; and, 10. The discovery of America by Columbus and several succeeding navigators.

131. *What was the result of these events and circumstances ?*—They awakened thought, softened asperities, stimulated commercial enterprise, and, in fact, gave a new turn to the course of human affairs. The middle ages were ended, and modern history was begun.

British History until 1603.

1. *What was the early condition of the British islands ?*—When first mentioned in history, the British islands were occupied by a people of the same Celtic race as that in Gaul, who had made some progress in the arts and regular government previous to the Christian era.

2. *How did the word Britain originate ?*—It is thought to be derived from the Celtic *brith* or *brit*, painted ; the ancient inhabitants having painted their bodies with colours.

3. *What was the meaning of Albion applied to Britain ?*—The term Albion or Albany signified a country of heights, and was used by writers in the fourth century B. C. This very ancient designation is still preserved by the Highlanders of Scotland, and it is also used in a fanciful way by the English.

4. *Who were the Druids ?*—They are said to have been the priests, teachers, judges, and repositories of learning in the Celtic nations previous to the introduction of Christianity ; such, at least, were the Druids as briefly described by Cæsar in Gaul and Britain.

5. *What is the origin of the term Druid ?*—It is commonly said to be derived from the British word *dru*, an oak ; for the Druids performed their pagan religious rites in open spaces, surrounded with tall stones amidst oak woods. According to tradition, they revered the mistletoe, a parasitic plant

which grows on the oak and other trees. All accounts of the Druids, however, are obscure and unsatisfactory.

6. *When did Julius Cæsar first invade Britain?*—Cæsar first invaded Britain 55 B.C.; and he returned the following year with a greater force; but on neither occasion did he effect any permanent conquest.

7. *Who was Caractacus?*—He was a British prince, who made a noble but unavailing defence against the Romans on their third invasion of Britain, 43 A.D.

8. *Who was Boadicea?*—She was a British princess, who made an ineffectual stand against the Romans, 61–62 A.D.

9. *Who was Agricola?*—He was a Roman general, who was appointed governor of Britain, 79 A.D., and by him the island was in a great measure subdued. Agricola marched with his army northward, planted permanent camps, and fought some great battles.

10. *Who were the Caledonians?*—Such was the name given by the Romans to the northern inhabitants of Britain—the term, it is believed, signifying dwellers in woods.

11. *Did Agricola subdue the Caledonians?*—No; he and his successors found them unconquerable, on account of the remote and inaccessible nature of their retreats; for security against their attacks, the Romans built walls across the island.

12. *When was the first Roman wall built?*—It was built in the year 121 A.D., by the Emperor Hadrian, between the river Tyne and the Solway Firth. The second wall was built in the reign of the Emperor Antoninus about 140 A.D., in order to connect a line of forts which Agricola had formed between the firths of Forth and Clyde.

13. *Did these walls restrain the Caledonians?*—No; though well defended by Roman soldiers, the walls were often broken through by the indomitable natives.

14. *How far did the Romans ever get northwards?*—They are believed to have reached the north-east end of Loch Ness, near the modern town of Inverness; but they made no permanent stay, and were obliged to retire southwards.

15. *When was the third Roman wall erected?*—It was erected, 207 A.D., by the Emperor Severus, near that formerly executed by Hadrian; the remains of the wall of Severus are still shewn. Severus died at Eboracum (now the city of York), 211 A.D., at which place died also the Emperor Constantius, 306 A.D.

16. *What was Hibernia?*—Hibernia was the name given by

the Romans to Ireland ; but they did not invade that island, which continued to be ruled by Celtic chiefs.

17. *What was the nature of the Roman occupation of Britain?*—They retained the island, so far as conquered, as a part of the Roman empire, exacted tribute, carried away natives as slaves to Rome, built towns, made roads, and introduced a variety of foreign usages.

18. *Did the Romans introduce their language into Britain?*—This they failed to do ; the people continued to speak the native British or Celtic, and from their tongue is derived the greater number of our names of such natural objects as rivers, mountains, &c.

19. *How did the Romans keep up their communication with Gaul?*—It was by means of galleys across the straits to Calais, and also by vessels from London on the Thames, which had already become a place of considerable trade and importance.

20. *What is the meaning of the word Calais?*—Calais is derived from a Celtic term signifying a strait, which term is radically the same as *Kyles*, applied to various small straits in Scotland.

21. *What is meant by 'Watling Street?'*—Such was the name given to the chief Roman road in Britain, which extended from Kent to Cardigan Bay. It was constructed by order of the Roman general Vitellianus, whose name was corrupted by the natives into Watelain ; and hence Watling Street.

22. *How long did the Romans occupy Britain?*—They remained between 300 and 400 years. About 420 A. D., their soldiers were wholly withdrawn in order to defend Italy against the attacks of the Goths, after which the stirring events in British history commence.

23. *Of what does British History consist?*—It consists of two separate narratives, one concerning England, and the other, Scotland, or the more northerly section of Britain ; and these narratives remain distinct until 1707, when the two nations were legislatively united on terms of equality.

24. *Does each narrative embrace the account of a distinct series of sovereigns?*—Yes ; England and Scotland had each its own series of kings, under whom the two nations were often at war ; and the interest of their history turns not a little on the intrepid manner in which Scotland, the poorer and less populous kingdom, was able for ages to preserve its ancient independence against the assaults of its more powerful neighbour.

25. *What explanation is given of the long-continued*

independence of Scotland?—The proper explanation is, that Scotland became consolidated under one monarchy before the English were in a condition to attack it; and further, that the Scots, with all their internal dissensions, ordinarily acted with resolute patriotism when assailed from without.

26. *Has Ireland a similarly separate history?*—No; as that island was attached by conquest to the English monarchy while it was under the rule of various petty kings or chiefs, its history is usually merged in that of England.

27. *What is known of the ancient state of Ireland?*—The island was divided into the provinces of Ulster, Munster, Leinster, and Connaught, each having its own king; there was also a king who ruled over the central district of Meath, to whom the others were in some degree subject. Of this early period, there are numerous interesting memorials which engage the attention of archæologists.

28. *What is Tara?*—Tara, or Tarah, is a small conical hill in the county of Meath, where, it is said, there was a royal residence in very early times, and where assemblies, of the nature of a parliament, were held every three years. It is mentioned that St Patrick attended and took part at these conventions.

29. *Who was St Patrick?*—He was a monk deputed from Rome by Pope Celestine to preach in Ireland. He arrived in that country in 432, and his mission was so very successful that to him is assigned the honour of having Christianised the Irish people. It is said that St Patrick settled at Armagh about 454, and that he died in 460. He has ever since been venerated as the patron saint of Ireland.

30. *Who were the Saxons, Angles, and Jutes?*—They were warlike Teutonic tribes inhabiting that north-western part of Germany near the shores of the Baltic, which now comprehends the duchies of Holstein, Jutland, and Schleswig.

31. *Who was Vortigern?*—He was elected king in South Britain on the withdrawal of the Romans, and invited the Saxons to aid him in defending the country against the incursions of the Caledonians.

32. *What was the date of the arrival of the Saxons?*—It was 449 A. D.; there is reason, however, to believe that the Saxons had formed small colonies on the east coast of Britain, previous to this event, and were already acquainted with the country.

33. *Who were Hengist and Horsa?*—They are represented to

have been leaders of the Saxons ; but historians now consider them to have been only mythical heroes.

34. *Did the Saxons assist the British?*—Yes ; but having done so, they made themselves masters of the country.

35. *When did the Angles arrive?*—They came either along with the Saxons, or shortly afterwards ; and from their intermixture is derived the term Anglo-Saxon, applied to the mixed Teutonic races which settled in the southern part of Britain.

36. *What is the origin of the word England?*—It is only an abbreviation of Angleland, or the land of the Angles, by which the country became known.

37. *What was the fate of the native British?*—The greater number submitted to the Saxons and Angles, and were accordingly blended in the general population ; but many sought refuge among the mountains of Wales and Cumberland, and others fled to that part of France, which from them has been called Brittany.

38. *What did the Welsh call themselves?*—They called themselves the *Cymri*, a term signifying countrymen, or those who were not foreigners. The modern word Cumberland is derived from the same root.

39. *Who was King Arthur?*—He was king of the *Cymri* or Welsh at the beginning of the sixth century, and made a resolute stand against the Anglo-Saxons. He was mortally wounded in battle, and died 542. Arthur and his heroic deeds have given rise to numerous fabulous legends.

40. *Who were the Picts?*—They were the more northern Caledonians, who had not submitted to the Romans, and were of the same Celtic race as the aboriginal British.

41. *Who were the Scots?*—They were tribes of Celts from Ireland, who settled on the western part of North Britain ; having in time gained the ascendancy over the Picts, the country was from them called Scotland.

42. *Did the Saxons and Angles effect any settlements in North Britain?*—Yes ; they established themselves in that part of the country situated between the Forth and the Tyne, and it is known that various Scandinavian colonies were also formed along the eastern shores of the country.

43. *What was the Heptarchy?*—Such was the name given to seven Anglo-Saxon kingdoms, called Kent, East-Anglia, Mercia, Essex, Sussex, Wessex, and Northumbria—this last

including a portion of what is now Scotland. The term Heptarchy signifies seven governments.

44. *When did the Heptarchy commence?*—It is impossible to tell exactly, but Mercia, the latest of the seven Anglo-Saxon States, was founded in 585. Including the Welsh, Cumbrian, Pictish, Scottish, and other petty states, there were at least fourteen different governments at one time in Britain; among which several languages, native and foreign, were in use.

45. *When was Christianity introduced into Britain?*—It was made partially known during the Roman dominion, and was afterwards propagated by various missionaries from Rome, and also from Ireland.

46. *Mention the names of the more remarkable Missionaries to Britain.*—St Ninian, St Columba, St Kentigern or Mungo, and St Augustine. By the three first mentioned, who are usually spoken of as Culdees, Christianity was made generally known in Scotland before St Augustine appeared in England.

47. *Who were the Culdees?*—They were priests or monks in the early ages of Christianity in the British islands, and are known to have had several monastic establishments in Ireland and Scotland. The term Culdee is from the Celtic Irish language, and signifies an attendant on God.

48. *Did the Culdees differ in doctrine or discipline from the Church of Rome?*—Not materially; it was long thought that the Culdees held some other form of Christianity than that of the Church of Rome, but late investigations shew that they did not differ in any material point of faith, discipline, or ritual from the other Catholic clergy of the period; ultimately, the Culdees, generally, became known as Canons Regular.

49. *When did St Columba begin his missionary labours?*—He came from Ireland in 563, and commenced by establishing a religious settlement in the small island of I, now called Iona, whence the light of Christianity was diffused over the north-western Caledonian regions.

50. *Who was St Augustine?*—He was a monk deputed from Rome by Gregory I. in the year 596, to convert the Anglo-Saxons, in which great work he was successful. He became first archbishop of Canterbury. By the labours of St Augustine and others, Christianity was very generally diffused, and an ecclesiastical system established about the end of the sixth century.

51. *How long did the Heptarchy endure?*—It lasted until 827, when Egbert, king of Wessex, gained an ascendancy over

the other states, and united the whole into one sovereignty. This event marks the origin of the kingdom of England.

52. *Who was Alfred?*—Alfred, usually styled Alfred the Great, was the grandson of Egbert, and as king of England was famed for his courage, sagacity, and amiable disposition. During his reign, which began in 871, England was invaded by the Danes, who for a time usurped the government; but Alfred afterwards expelled them. He died 901.



Alfred the Great.

53. *Did the Danes again invade England?*—Yes; they came in great force in 1013, and having overthrown the Anglo-Saxons, they established a Danish dynasty.

54. *How many kings were there of the Danish dynasty?*—Four—Sweyn, Canute, Harold, and Hardicanute; of these the most noted was Canute, who ruled with great discretion.

55. *What is the story about Canute and the sea?*—It is related that his courtiers affected to think that all things would be obedient to his command. In order to reprove their adulation, he caused his chair to be placed on the sea-shore while the tide was coming in, and commanded the waves to retire. The sea, however, continued to advance, and at length surrounded his chair, whereupon Canute made some observations concerning the limited nature of all earthly power.

56. *Did the Danes ravage Ireland?*—Yes; they made several descents on Ireland in the ninth and tenth centuries; they also committed great havoc in various parts of that country, at the beginning of the eleventh century.

57. *Who was Brian Boroihme?*—Brian Boroihme (pronounced Borou), was a king or chieftain of note in Ireland, who defeated the Danes at the battle of Clontarf, in 1014.

58. *What was the nature of the Anglo-Saxon Institutions?*—They were favourable to justice and liberty. To the Anglo-Saxons is traced that love of constitutional government, and also that sense of justice, which distinguish the character of the English.

59. *Mention two important Anglo-Saxon institutions?*—The Witenagemôte, and trial by jury.¹

60. *What was the Witenagemôte?*—It was a species of

¹ See *Miscellaneous Questions*, p. 175

parliament called together by the king to decide on affairs of state ; the term literally signifies a meeting of wise men.

61. *What was Trial by Ordeal?*—It was an Anglo-Saxon method of determining facts in criminal cases, too intricate for ordinary judgment. Chance ruled the decision. The accused was ordered to grasp red-hot iron, and if his hand shewed marks of burning, he was held to be guilty ; if his hand was uninjured, he was held to be innocent. Prayers accompanied this and other forms of trial by ordeal, which was meant as a direct appeal to the Deity.

62. *Did differences of rank prevail in Anglo-Saxon times?*—Yes ; there was an aristocracy, or body of nobles who bore the title of eorls or earls, among whom was an officer called an *ealdorman* (meaning ‘older man’ or ‘senator’)—hence the modern term *alderman*.

63. *What were the duties of the Eorl?*—He was the principal officer in a district, and had a deputy called *scirgeresa*—a term now modified into the word sheriff. Hence shires, or counties as they were afterwards named, when presided over by Norman counts, were of Anglo-Saxon origin.

64. *What were Thaness?*—Thaness were landholders of high rank ; proprietors of lesser distinction were called *Franklins*.

65. *Did Serfdom exist under the Anglo-Saxons?*—Yes ; the majority of the people were in a servile state, and the Norman barons only increased the rigour of the servitude in which the ‘thralls’ were kept by the Saxon thaness. Many of the Franklins, it is believed, lost their lands and liberty at the Conquest.

66. *Who was Edward the Confessor?*—He was an Anglo-Saxon prince, who was chosen king on the death of Hardicanute, 1042, by which means the old dynasty was restored. Edward was surnamed the Confessor on account of his piety. He died 1066.

67. *Who was Harold?*—He was son of Godwin, Earl of Wessex, who, on the death of Edward the Confessor, usurped the crown, to the prejudice of Prince Edgar Atheling, the nearest heir of the deceased king, and remained in power till deposed by William the Conqueror.

68. *Who was William the Conqueror?*—He was Duke of Normandy, a warlike and ambitious personage, who contested the right of Harold to the crown, and with a large force of Normans invaded England, 1066.

69. *What was the battle of Hastings?*—It was a battle fought

near Hastings, on the south coast of England, between William of Normandy and Harold, October 14, 1066, in which Harold was defeated and slain.

70. *What has this victory by William been usually called?*—It has been styled the Norman Conquest, and forms a leading event in English history, for it terminated the rule of the Anglo-Saxons, and introduced a Norman-French dynasty, along with the feudal system, and many new families of foreign lineage.

71. *What is William styled in English history?*—He is styled William I., or William the Conqueror.

72. *Did William I. relinquish his Norman dukedom?*—No; though settling as king in England, he retained his Norman dukedom, a circumstance which long connected the English kings with France, and from which till this day the English hold possession of Guernsey, Jersey, and other Channel Islands.

73. *What was Doomsday Book?*—It was a minute survey of the whole of England, executed by order of William I., and completed 1086. It states the name of every proprietor of land and the extent of his possessions, and forms an invaluable record of the condition of England in the eleventh century.

74. *What was the Curfew?*—It was the ringing of a bell at sunset in winter and eight o'clock in summer, as a warning to put out the fire in every dwelling—the word curfew being a corruption of the French *couvre-feu*, cover-fire. The curfew is ordinarily said to have been imposed by William I., but it is known to have prevailed throughout Europe at an earlier period as a precaution against fires.

75. *What effect had the Norman Conquest on the English language?*—It was the means of introducing Norman-French, which was long the language of the court and the law; this French was in time blended with the Anglo-Saxon which previously prevailed, and the result, with a later admixture of Latin, was the modern English.

76. *Did William subvert the Anglo-Saxon institutions?*—No; but he added to them feudal usages, and from his time the titled aristocracy rose in social importance. The Saxon dignity of Thane was now changed to Baron.

77. *What was Villenage?*—It was a peculiar tenure of land instituted after the Norman Conquest, and founded on the servile state of the occupants of the soil, who were allowed to hold land only on condition of performing menial services to

their 'lord' or 'superior.' Persons in this servile state were styled *villeins*—hence the common English word *villain*.

78. *What were the Forest Laws?*—They were severe enactments of William the Conqueror respecting the royal forests and the preservation of deer and other wild animals. The 'game laws' of modern times are a remnant of these Norman forest laws.

79. *When was the Tower of London built?*—It was built by William the Conqueror, 1078; and the year following, William granted the first charter to the city of London.

80. *When did William the Conqueror die?*—He died in 1087, leaving the country in so powerful and settled a condition, that it never again was conquered by foreigners.

81. *What is learned from history of the early Scottish monarchy?*—Mention is made of a double series of kings, Pictish and Scottish, who were frequently at war with each other. At length, in the year 843, Kenneth, king of Scots, added the Pictish kingdom to his own, and the monarchy was still further consolidated by the annexation of Northumbria, by Malcolm II., in 1018.

82. *Who was Duncan?*—He was a king of the Scots, who was killed by Macbeth, a usurper of the crown, 1039, on which Malcolm, the eldest son of Duncan, fled to England for protection.

83. *Did Malcolm recover the Scottish crown?*—Yes; by the assistance of Edward the Confessor, he recovered the kingdom from Macbeth, who was slain in battle, 1056. Malcolm now ascended the throne as Malcolm III.; but he is better remembered as Malcolm *Canmore*, having been so called from his large head (*Cean-mohr*, Celtic for 'big head').

84. *Whom did Malcolm Canmore marry?*—He married Margaret, an Anglo-Saxon princess, sister of Edgar Atheling, who sought refuge in Scotland 1068, after the Norman conquest of England. From her great piety, Queen Margaret was canonised, and is traditionally remembered as St Margaret.

85. *What influence did Queen Margaret exert over Scotland?*—She greatly contributed to spread a knowledge of the Anglo-Saxon tongue, and in her time Scotland became the refuge of many Anglo-Saxon chiefs. So many social meliorations took place at this period, that the reign of Malcolm Canmore marks an important era in Scottish history.

86. *When did Malcolm Canmore die?*—He was killed at the siege of Alnwick, in 1093. He was succeeded, after two

brief usurpations, by his eldest son, Edgar, who was succeeded by his next brother, Alexander I.

87. *Who was David I.?*—He was the youngest son of Malcolm Canmore and Queen Margaret, and ultimately succeeded to the throne in 1124. Like his mother, he was distinguished for his piety, which led him to build many splendid abbeys and religious houses of lesser note.

88. *For what was the reign of David remarkable?*—With this reign written charters to property in Scotland begin; to it is also to be traced the settlement of Anglo-Norman chiefs, and the introduction of feudal tenure—by which, and previous advances, Scotland acquired a similarity of usages with England. David died 1153, and was succeeded by his grandson, Malcolm IV., styled Malcolm the Maiden.

89. *When was the present border of England and Scotland settled?*—With some minor exceptions, the present border dates from 1157, in the reign of Malcolm IV., when Cumberland was severed from Scotland and attached to England.

90. *When did Malcolm IV. die?*—He died 1165; his successors were William the Lion, Alexander II., and Alexander III. This last was killed by accident in 1285, and left only a grand-daughter, Margaret, known as the 'Maiden of Norway,' at whose death, 1290, there ensued a violent competition for the throne, followed by a disastrous civil war.

91. *Who succeeded William the Conqueror?*—His son, William II., surnamed *Rufus*, from the red colour of his hair.

92. *Mention some events in the reign of William Rufus.*—The crusades were begun in Continental Europe, 1096, and Westminster Hall was built, 1097.

93. *What was the fate of Rufus?*—He was accidentally killed by an arrow, shot by Sir Walter Tyrrell, in the New Forest, in 1100, and was succeeded by his brother Henry I., surnamed *Beauclerc*, from being a fine scholar.

94. *Who was 'Maud the Good'?*—Maud was the daughter of Malcolm Canmore, king of Scots, and wife of Henry I.

95. *What children had Henry and Maud?*—They had a son, who was lost at sea, and a daughter, Matilda or Maud, married, while still a child, to the emperor of Germany; that person dying, she was married to Geoffrey Plantagenet, Count of Anjou, and had a son, Henry.

96. *Who succeeded Henry I.?*—At his death in 1135, there was a contest for the crown. The proper heir was Henry Plantagenet, son of Matilda; but a usurper appeared in the person of Stephen, Count of Blois, son of Adele, fifth

daughter of William the Conqueror; and he was allowed by a compromise, after a bloody struggle, to be king, on condition of being succeeded by Henry.

97. *Who built St Stephen's Chapel, adjoining Westminster Hall?*—It was built by King Stephen, and dedicated to his namesake, St Stephen, about 1135. Two centuries afterwards, St Stephen's was appropriated to the use of parliament.

98. *How did the Plantagenet dynasty originate?*—It originated by the accession of Henry Plantagenet to the throne as Henry II., on the decease of Stephen, in 1154.

99. *Who was Thomas à Becket?*—He was archbishop of Canterbury, and from his learning and wisdom, had been appointed Lord Chancellor of England; but incurring the dislike of Henry II., by opposing Henry's schemes of church polity, that monarch instigated a band of nobles to kill him; this foul murder took place in the cathedral of Canterbury, 1170.

100. *What were pilgrimages to Canterbury?*—They were pious expeditions undertaken by great numbers of persons to worship at Canterbury at the shrine of Thomas à Becket, who was canonised as a saint; these pilgrimages continued till the sixteenth century.

101. *When was Ireland attached to the English monarchy?*—In 1155, Henry II. obtained a bull from Pope Adrian IV., authorising him to take possession of the island, and he did so about 1171; but the English rule was not confirmed till the reign of King John, 1210.

102. *When was the first London Bridge built?*—The first stone bridge across the Thames at London was begun in the reign of Henry II., 1176, and finished in 1209.

103. *Who was Richard Cœur-de-Lion?*—He was the eldest surviving son of Henry II., and acceded to the throne on the death of his father, 1189. Richard gained celebrity as a crusader, and was surnamed *Cœur-de-Lion*, or Lion-hearted, on account of his bravery and magnanimity.

104. *When did Richard Cœur-de-Lion die?*—He died 1199, by the wound of an arrow, shot from the castle of Chalus, Limoges. He was buried at the abbey of Fontevrault, where his tomb is still shewn.

105. *Who was King John?*—He was brother of Richard Cœur-de-Lion, whom he succeeded in 1199.

106. *What was Magna Charta?*—Magna Charta, or the Great Charter, was a deed subscribed by King John at Runnymede, near Windsor, in 1215, securing certain rights and privileges to the barons, clergy, and freemen. This charter, resting on

certain Anglo-Saxon usages, and notions of common-sense, is reckoned the foundation of English liberty.

107. *Define two or three of the leading provisions of Magna Charta?*—No tax is to be imposed without the consent of the kingdom; no freeman is to be imprisoned or punished without lawful trial by jury, and if the trial is delayed, the accused can apply to be tried or set at liberty. The charter, however, took but little notice of serfs or villeins, and it was only in the progress of society that these humble classes at length participated in the privileges assured to the barons, clergy, and freemen.



King John.

108. *Who succeeded King John?*—He was succeeded by his eldest son, Henry III., 1216.

109. *When was Westminster Abbey built?*—The greater part of the abbey as it now exists was built in the reign of Henry III., about 1220, but portions remain of a previous church erected by Edward the Confessor; and it is said that the first church on the spot was built by Sibert, king of Essex, about 610.

110. *When was the Parliament of England first constituted?*—The first regularly constituted parliament, embracing knights, citizens, and burgesses, took place in the reign of Henry III., 1265. Previous parliaments had been of a less perfect kind; 1265 is therefore the date of a confirmed representation of the people in a House of Commons.

111. *Who succeeded Henry III.?*—He was succeeded in 1272 by his eldest son, Edward I., one of the greatest sovereigns of England.

112. *When did Edward I. conquer Wales?*—He conquered it and added it to the English monarchy in 1282. His infant son Edward was created Prince of Wales soon after his birth, and ever since, this title has pertained to the eldest son of the sovereign of England.

113. *Who was Queen Eleanor?*—She was the wife of Edward I., who held her in such high esteem, that at her death in 1290, he erected a number of crosses to her memory. These edifices, usually called Norman crosses, were placed on spots where the body of Queen Eleanor rested in its funeral progress to Westminster. Among the number were the crosses at

Northampton, St Albans, Waltham, and village of Charing—hence the name Charing Cross.

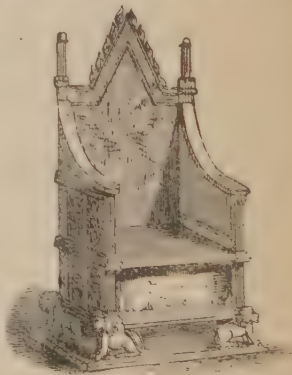
114. *What was the condition of the Jews in England in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries?*—They suffered great injustice and cruelty, were often subjected to grievous exactions, and always exposed to unmerited contumely. In 1290, upwards of 15,000 were banished from England. The maltreatment of the Jews rests as a stain on the memory of Edward I., and some other kings of the Plantagenet dynasty.

115. *Who were John Baliol and Robert Bruce?*—They were two Scottish nobles who competed for the throne of Scotland, after the decease of Alexander III. ; the dispute being referred to Edward I. as arbitrator, he decided in favour of Baliol, but soon stripped him of his sovereignty, and endeavoured by force of arms to take the kingdom to himself.

116. *What has Edward I. been called?*—He has been styled the *Hammer of the Scots*, from the manner in which he forcibly reduced the country to temporary subjection.

117. *What was the 'Stone of Scone'?*—It was a stone on which the kings of Scotland had been crowned at Scone (pronounced Scoon), said to be of great antiquity. This stone, being taken to England, is now attached to a chair of state in Westminster Abbey, on which the sovereigns are crowned.

118. *Who was William Wallace?*—He was a celebrated Scottish patriot, younger son of a gentleman in Renfrewshire, who endeavoured with great gallantry to expel the English from Scotland, but after various achievements, was by treachery delivered to Edward, and subjected to a cruel death in London, 1305.



Westminster Chair of State.

119. *Who was Robert I.?*—He was Robert Bruce, son of the Earl of Carrick, and grandson of the Robert Bruce who competed for the crown of Scotland with Baliol ; he finally established himself as king by the victory of Bannockburn, and assumed the designation of Robert I.

120. *When was the Irish parliament instituted?*—The first

regular parliament, consisting of persons representing the English in Ireland, was summoned in 1295 by Sir John Wogan, chief governor under Edward I.

121. *When did Edward I. die?*—He died in 1307, and was succeeded by his son, Edward II., by whom, as well as by his successor, Edward III., the Scots continued to be troubled.

122. *When was the battle of Bannockburn fought?*—It was fought in the reign of Edward II., on the 24th of June 1314.

123. *When did Robert I. die?*—He died in 1329, and left an only son, a child by a second marriage, David II., during whose minority the government was administered by an eminent regent, Randolph, Earl of Moray. By his first marriage, Robert I. left a daughter, Marjory.

124. *Did David II. enjoy the throne peacefully?*—No ; he was involved in contests with the English, was taken prisoner, and kept in captivity eleven years, but was at length released by Edward III., on paying a heavy ransom, 1357. David II. died without issue, 1370.

125. *When did the Stuart dynasty begin?*—The Stuart or Stewart dynasty began with Robert II., nephew and successor of David II. Robert was a son of Marjory Bruce, who had married Walter, Lord High Steward of Scotland, and hence his surname.

126. *Who were the immediate successors of Robert II.?*—Robert III., James I., James II., James III., James IV., and James V.

127. *What was the fate of James I.?*—Though the most accomplished prince of his time, he was barbarously murdered in 1437.

128. *How did the Shetland and Orkney Islands become attached to the Scottish monarchy?*—In 1468, James III. married a Danish princess, whose dowry was 60,000 florins, for which these islands were given in pledge. As the dowry was never paid, the islands remained a possession of the Scots.

129. *What claim did Edward III. make to France?*—He pretended a right to the crown through his mother ; and taking the title of king of France, 1340, he assumed for his motto, *Dieu et mon Droit* ('God and my right'), which has ever since been borne by the kings of England. After a long siege, Edward captured Calais, on which occasion he designed to hang six of the citizens ; but their lives were spared at the intercession of Queen Philippa.

130. *Who was Edward the Black Prince?*—He was eldest son of Edward III., and was called the Black Prince from the

colour of his armour. He gained a victory over the French at the battle of Cressy, 1346; among the killed was the king of Bohemia, whose crest, consisting of three ostrich feathers, with the motto *Ich Dien* (I serve), was adopted by Edward, and has ever since been borne by the Princes of Wales.

131. *When was Calais captured by Edward III.?*—It was taken in 1347, and remained for 211 years in possession of the English.

132. *When was the battle of Poitiers fought?*—It was fought in 1356, when Edward the Black Prince gained a victory over the French.

133. *What was the 'Statute of Kilkenny'?*—It was an act of the Irish parliament, which was passed in 1367, in the reign of Edward III., decreeing excommunication and heavy penalties against all who followed the customs of, or allied themselves with, the native Irish. This famous act never had much efficacy beyond the Pale.

134. *What was the Pale?*—It was a district of country round the seat of government, over which the English rule was acknowledged and obeyed—all beyond the Pale being held by a very imperfect tenure. The extent of the Pale differed at different times, but in a general way may be said to have been a strip along the east side of the island, comprising the counties of Dublin, Meath, Carlow, Kilkenny, and Louth.

135. *When did the Black Prince die?*—He died in the lifetime of his father, 1376. Edward III., who died next year, had six other sons, including Lionel, Duke of Clarence, and John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, also five daughters.

136. *Who succeeded Edward III.?*—He was succeeded by his grandson, Richard II., son of Edward the Black Prince.

137. *Who was Wat Tyler?*—He was a man of humble degree, who headed a popular tumult, 1381, arising from the imposition of a poll-tax and other grievances, in the reign of Richard II. Tyler was stabbed by Walworth, lord-mayor of London, from which event the figure of a dagger is still borne in the armorial bearings of the city of London.

138. *Who was Wickliffe?*—John Wickliffe or Wycliffe was a learned English clergyman in the reign of Edward III. and Richard II.; he became noted for preaching against the powers claimed by the pope, and for announcing certain reformed doctrines. Wickliffe died in 1384, and has been styled the 'Morning Star of the Reformation.'

139. *What was the fate of Richard II.?*—He was deposed and murdered, 1399, and was succeeded by his cousin, Henry IV., eldest son of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, in prejudice

of Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March, great-grandson of Lionel, third son of Edward III.

140. *Who was Harry Hotspur?*—He was a son of Percy, Earl of Northumberland, who, along with a valiant Welshman, Owen Glendower, raised a rebellion against Henry IV.; the rebel forces were defeated at Shrewsbury, and Hotspur was killed, 1403.

141. *Who was the immediate successor of Henry IV. and V.?*—Henry VI., in whose reign an insurrection broke out under Jack Cade, 1450; after attempting to sack London, Cade was killed, and the insurgents were dispersed. In this reign, about 1453, the English lost all their possessions in France. Henry VI. was deposed 1461, and was murdered by Richard, Duke of Gloucester, youngest son of Richard, Duke of York, 1471. He was succeeded by Edward IV.

142. *When did Edward IV. die?*—He died 1483; his son, Edward V., after a short reign, was deposed and murdered by his uncle, Richard Duke of Gloucester (brother of Edward IV.), who usurped the throne as Richard III., 1483.

143. *Who was William Caxton?*—He was a citizen of London, who introduced the art of printing into England; he set up a press at Westminster about 1471.

144. *What were the Wars of the Roses?*—They were civil wars between the rival houses of York and Lancaster; the badge of the York family was a *white*, and that of Lancaster a *red*, rose—hence the name of these fierce and desolating contests.

145. *Which party was ultimately successful?*—The House of Lancaster, which, in the person of Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, overcame the House of York, represented by Richard III., at the battle of Bosworth, 1485, when Richard was killed, and Richmond ascended the throne as Henry VII. So ended the dynasty of the Plantagenets.

146. *When did the Tudor dynasty begin?*—It began with Henry VII., the son of Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond, who was the son of Owen Tudor, a Welsh gentleman. The Tudors rose to distinction by Owen marrying Queen Catherine, widow of Henry V. Their son, Edmund, still further advanced the interests of the family by marrying a great-grand-daughter of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, and it was through this lady, his mother, that Henry laid claim to the throne.

147. *By whom were affairs in Ireland administered?*—They were administered at this period by an officer styled the *Lord Deputy*, who was appointed by the English sovereign.

148. *What was 'Poyning's Law?'*—It was the celebrated

statute of Drogheda, passed in 1495, during the administration of Lord Deputy Poyning.

149. *What was the aim of Poyning's Law?*—Its aim was to place the Irish parliament under the direct control of the English executive, so as to prevent the great Anglo-Irish families from uniting to resist the English government.

150. *What did Poyning's Law specially enact?*—It enacted that all statutes lately passed in England should be law in Ireland; and in interpretation of this, the whole English statute law, prior to the eighteenth year of Henry VII., was transplanted to Ireland.

151. *Who was Perkin Warbeck?*—He was a pretender who affected to be Richard, Duke of York, the younger brother of Edward V., and, as such, entitled to be king in preference to Henry VII. Perkin having raised a rebellion, was taken prisoner, and hanged at Tyburn, 1499.

152. *What was the character of Henry VII.?*—He was avaricious and cold-tempered; but he ruled with much sagacity, and promoted a number of laws beneficial to the country.

153. *How were the Houses of York and Lancaster united?*—By Henry VII. marrying Elizabeth, eldest daughter of Edward IV. Henry died in 1509, leaving one son, Henry, and two daughters, Margaret and Mary.

154. *Who was Henry VIII.?*—He was the surviving son and successor of Henry VII., and ascended the English throne in 1509. He was a learned and accomplished prince, but imperious and cruel.

155. *How many wives had Henry VIII., and what was their fate?*—He married six wives in succession. His first wife was Catharine of Aragon, widow of his deceased brother Prince Arthur, whom he divorced; his second was Anne Boleyn, whom he caused to be beheaded; his third was Lady Jane Seymour, who died in giving birth to a prince; his fourth was Anne of Cleves, whom he divorced; his fifth was Catharine Howard, whom he caused to be beheaded; and his sixth was Lady Catharine Parr, who had the good-fortune neither to be divorced nor beheaded by Henry, and survived him.

156. *What children had Henry VIII.?*—He had three children—Mary, a daughter of Catharine of Aragon; Elizabeth,



Henry VIII.

a daughter of Anne Boleyn ; and Edward, a son of Lady Jane Seymour.

157. *What title was conferred on Henry VIII. by the pope?*—The title of ‘Defender of the Faith’ was conferred on him by Pope Leo X., as a reward for writing against Martin Luther, 1521.

158. *Who was Cardinal Wolsey?*—He was an eminent ecclesiastic and able statesman, who for a time possessed the confidence of Henry VIII.; but refusing to sanction the king’s marriage with Anne Boleyn, he was degraded from office, and accused of treason ; in distress of mind Wolsey died, 1530.

159. *What was the immediate cause of the Reformation in England?*—It was a quarrel between Henry VIII. and the pope.

160. *Explain the cause of this momentous quarrel.*—Henry having divorced his first wife, Catharine of Aragon, and married Anne Boleyn, the pope declared this second marriage to be unlawful, and at length excommunicated Henry for contumacy ; thereupon Henry threw off the papal power, and with the assent of parliament became supreme head of the Church of England, 1534.

161. *Who was Sir Thomas More?*—He was an eminent lawyer, appointed Lord Chancellor of England on the fall of Wolsey. As he could not be prevailed upon by Henry VIII. to declare that his marriage with Anne Boleyn had been lawful, he was, by a flagrant act of injustice, arraigned, tried, and condemned at Westminster, and was beheaded, 1535.

162. *When were the monasteries abolished in England?*—From 1535 to 1537 ; in this last year, the English translation of the Bible was ordered to be used in public worship. Henry had now assumed the supremacy of the church.

163. *What have these events been designated?*—They are called ‘the Reformation,’ which marks an important era in English history.

164. *What was a leading feature of the Reformation in England?*—It left the organisation of the church much as it had been previously, and was mainly a change of certain doctrines and usages, along with a repudiation of papal authority.

165. *When was the Reformation effected in Ireland?*—It was effected in 1535, when Henry VIII. caused the Irish parliament to pass an act establishing his supremacy. The people

of Ireland, however, did not generally adopt the reformed doctrines.

166. *When was Ireland raised to the rank of a kingdom?*—It was raised to that dignity by Henry VIII. in 1540, when he adopted the title of *King* in place of *Lord* of Ireland, and conferred peerages on various native chiefs, who did homage as feudal vassals to the English crown.

167. *What was the condition of England during the reign of Henry VIII.?*—There was much poverty, crime, and violence; more particularly after the dissolution of the religious houses and the dispersal of their inmates. In the reign of Henry VIII., extending to 38 years, 73,000 criminals are said to have been executed in England.

168. *When did Henry VIII. die?*—He died in 1547, and was succeeded by his son, Edward VI.

169. *Who compiled the Book of Common Prayer of the Church of England?*—It was compiled chiefly by Thomas Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, Hugh Latimer, and other eminent ecclesiastics, in the reign of Edward VI.

170. *Who was the Protector Somerset?*—He was Duke of Somerset, who acted as supreme ruler on account of the youth of Edward VI.

171. *When did Edward VI. die?*—He died in 1553, and was succeeded by his elder half-sister, Mary, under whom the papal authority was restored, and Latimer, Ridley, and Cranmer were burned as heretics, the two former in 1555, and the latter in 1556. Mary died, 1558.

172. *Who was Queen Elizabeth?*—She was half-sister of Edward VI. and Mary, and ascended the throne in 1558. Elizabeth restored the Reformed Church of England, and became its most zealous protector; and under her the country made great advances in commerce, arts, and learning. Shakspeare, the great English poet and dramatist, lived in her reign. Elizabeth was personally vain and capricious; but she was high-spirited, sagacious, and more patriotic than any princess of her age. She lived unmarried.



Queen Elizabeth.

173. *Who was Lord Burleigh?*—William Cecil Lord Burleigh was minister of Queen Elizabeth, and the greatest

statesman of his age. To him the glory of Elizabeth's reign was in a great measure due.

174. *What maritime enterprises took place in the reign of Elizabeth?*—Under Drake, Cavendish, Raleigh, and Frobisher, various expeditions were conducted, and discoveries made. Now were commenced the English colonies in North America; one of these being called *Virginia*, in compliment to the queen.

175. *When was Tobacco first brought to England?*—It was first brought by Sir John Hawkins in 1565, but for some years it was exported, and not used in the country; it was first introduced to use in England by Sir Walter Raleigh in 1586.

176. *What was the Spanish Armada?*—It was a fleet of war-vessels sent by Spain to conquer England, and bring it back to the Roman Catholic faith. Partly by the gallantry of the English fleets, and partly by tempests, the Armada was destroyed and scattered, 1588.

177. *When was the first Poor-law enacted in England?*—In 1535, in the reign of Henry VIII.; but the law was greatly amended in 1601, in the reign of Elizabeth; and this latter new enactment of 1601 is usually spoken of as the origin of the English poor-laws.

178. *Did Elizabeth concern herself about affairs in Scotland?*—Yes; she took a deep interest in the affairs of Scotland, from the circumstance that the sovereign of that country was the nearest heir to the English crown; Elizabeth having been declared illegitimate by the pope, she entertained a jealousy of the claims of her relative Mary Queen of Scots.

179. *How did the relationship of the Scottish and English royal families originate?*—It originated in Margaret Tudor, eldest daughter of Henry VII. and sister of Henry VIII., marrying James IV., king of Scots. Their eldest son was James V., born in 1512.

180. *Did this alliance of the English and Scottish royal families secure peace between the two countries?*—No; James IV., a chivalrous but rash king, quarrelled with his brother-in-law, Henry VIII., and declaring war against him marched with a great army to England, and fought the battle of Flodden.

181. *When was the battle of Flodden fought?*—It was fought on the 9th of September 1513, when the English were victorious, James IV. was killed, and a vast number of his Scottish army were also slain. This disastrous event is the subject of various mournful Scottish ballads.

182. *How was the government of Scotland conducted during the*

minority of James V. ?—It was conducted by various Regents, who were unable to prevent disorders, and the country was for years in a very disturbed state.

183. *Whom did Margaret Tudor, widow of James IV., marry ?*—She married, for second husband, Archibald Douglas, sixth Earl of Angus, by whom she had an only daughter, Margaret Douglas, who married Matthew Stuart, fourth Earl of Lennox ; which Earl of Lennox had two sons, Henry Stuart Lord Darnley, and Charles Stuart, who became fifth Earl of Lennox, and was father of Lady Arabella Stuart.

184. *Who was Mary Queen of Scots ?*—She was daughter of James V., and was born in 1542, only seven days before the death of her father.

185. *What was the project of the Protector Somerset respecting the infant Mary Queen of Scots ?*—It was to marry her to Edward VI., and thereby effect a union of the English and Scottish crowns.

186. *Did the Scots fall in with this project ?*—No ; they rejected the alliance chiefly on the ground that the English had ceased to be a Roman Catholic nation ; whereupon, Somerset invaded Scotland with an army to compel the proposed union ; the result was the battle of Pinkie.

187. *When was the battle of Pinkie fought ?*—It was fought in 1547, when the Scots were vanquished ; they, however, saved their young queen by sending her to France to be educated.

188. *What was the connection between Scotland and France ?*—It was an old connection arising partly from intermarriages between the royal families ; but was chiefly maintained as a political alliance, offensive and defensive, against England.

189. *How was the Reformation effected in Scotland ?*—It was effected by a sudden public paroxysm, for which various causes conspired—certain scandalous abuses in the church, the preaching of John Knox and others, the satirical effusions of Sir David Lindsay, and the rapacious desire of the nobility or ‘Lords of the Congregation,’ to possess themselves of the church lands and endowments.

190. *Who was John Knox ?*—He was a Scotsman, who was educated as a Roman Catholic priest ; but having embraced the reformed doctrines, he became their able and intrepid expounder among his countrymen. He closed life as one of the ministers of Edinburgh, 1572.

191. *Who was Cardinal Beaton ?*—He was Primate of Scotland at the outbreak of the Reformation ; under his authority many persons were imprisoned and executed for propagating

the Reformed doctrines—the most eminent of these sufferers being George Wishart, who was burned at St Andrews. Beaton was assassinated, 1546.

192. *When was the Reformation in Scotland effected?*—It was effected in 1560, when the ancient ecclesiastical organisation was abolished by an act of the Scots parliament. About the same time, irregular mobs destroyed the monasteries and abbeys; and deprived of means of support, the reformed church struggled at first under great difficulties.

193. *Whom did Mary Queen of Scots marry?*—She married, first, Francis II. of France, and after his decease, on her return to Scotland, she married her second-cousin, Henry Stuart Lord Darnley.

194. *Who was David Rizzio?*—He was an accomplished foreigner, a favourite at the court of Mary Queen of Scots, and was murdered in her presence by a band of conspirators at Holyrood, 1566, a few months before the birth of her son.

195. *When was Mary's son born?*—Her son, James Stuart, was born in the Castle of Edinburgh, June 19, 1566.

196. *What was the fate of Darnley?*—He was murdered and the house in which he was blown up by gunpowder, 1567.

197. *Who was the third husband of Mary Queen of Scots?*—James Hepburn, Earl of Bothwell, a worthless personage, who was believed to have been concerned in the murder of Darnley. This scandalous marriage produced a quarrel between the queen and her subjects.

198. *What was the fate of Mary Queen of Scots?*—Fleeing from her subjects, she sought refuge from her relative, Queen Elizabeth, who, after imprisoning her for a number of years, caused her to be beheaded on a charge of a treasonous conspiracy, 1587. This cruel act remains a grievous blot on the memory of Elizabeth.

199. *Who succeeded Mary as sovereign in Scotland?*—Her son, who, while still a youth, ascended the throne as James VI.

200. *Who was the Regent Murray?*—He was James Stuart, Earl of Murray, half-brother of Mary, who acted for a time as Regent during the minority of James VI. Murray was an able statesman, and took considerable part in promoting the Reformation in Scotland. He was assassinated in 1570.

201. *What was the condition of Scotland during the early part of James's reign?*—It was a condition of constant disturbances, fights, and slaughters, the king being incapable of maintaining the authority of the law.

202. *Whom did James VI. marry?*—The princess Anne of

Denmark, by whom he had two sons, Henry and Charles, and a daughter, Elizabeth.

203. *When was New-year's Day changed in Scotland?*—By an act of parliament, it was changed from the 25th of March to the 1st of January; this change took place on the 1st of January 1600. For long afterwards, the 25th of March continued to be New-year's Day, legally, in England.

204. *When did James VI. accede to the English throne?*—On the death of Elizabeth, the last of the Tudors, in 1603, when he assumed the title of James I. of England, and left Scotland with his family to reside at Westminster. Thus the Stuart dynasty was begun in England.

205. *What has the accession of James VI. to the English throne been usually called?*—It is known in history as the UNION OF THE CROWNS.

British History, from 1603 until 1714.

1. *When was the term 'Great Britain' introduced?*—It was introduced in 1604, when James I. was styled 'King of Great Britain.'

2. *How was Scotland governed after the Union of the Crowns?*—It was governed by certain state-officers appointed by James I., along with the Scots parliament.

3. *What was the nature of the Scots parliament?*—It comprehended lords and commons (also ecclesiastical dignitaries before the Reformation, and during Episcopacy in Scotland), who all sat and deliberated together; its place of meeting was latterly a hall in Edinburgh, called the Parliament House.

4. *What was the 'Gunpowder Plot.'*—It was a conspiracy to blow up the Houses of Parliament at Westminster by gunpowder, November 5, 1605. Guy Fawkes and other conspirators were seized, condemned, and executed.

5. *Who were the Puritans?*—They were a religious party who came into notice in the reign of Elizabeth; rejecting ecclesiastical traditions and the Book of Common Prayer, they professed to be guided alone by the Scriptures, and to maintain great purity in life and doctrine—hence the name which was attached to them. The party rose to importance in the reign of James I.

6. *Did the principles of the Puritans extend to Scotland?*—Similar principles affected Scotland; and there took a much more permanent hold than in England.

7. *What was the character of James I.?*—It was that of a weak and vain man, and, above all, he possessed an inordinate idea of his royal prerogative or rights as a sovereign.

8. *What were James's notions of church-polity?*—He held firmly to the episcopal system of the Reformed Church of England, and endeavoured to introduce a similar organisation into Scotland—an attempt which proved the forerunner of many troubles.

9. *When was the Authorised Version of the Bible effected?*—It was executed by a body of learned English divines, by order of James I., in 1611.

10. *Whom did the Princess Elizabeth, daughter of James I., marry?*—Frederick, elector of the Palatinate, a small principality on the Rhine, of which Heidelberg was the capital. This marriage took place in 1613, shortly after the death of Henry, the eldest son of James I.

11. *What was Elizabeth's history?*—Her husband was elected king of Bohemia in 1619, but by a reverse of fortune he was driven from that country, and also lost the Palatinate; Elizabeth, who was now styled 'Queen of Bohemia,' was reduced with her family to great indigence.

12. *What children had Elizabeth?*—She had a numerous family; her eldest son, Charles-Louis, lived to recover the Palatinate; and another son, Rupert, distinguished himself as a soldier. Her youngest daughter, Sophia, married Ernest-Augustus, Elector of Hanover.

13. *Who was Lady Arabella Stuart?*—She was a daughter of the Earl of Lennox, and, as descended from Margaret Tudor, had a claim to the throne in default of James I. and his family.

14. *How did James treat Arabella Stuart?*—Entertaining a mean jealousy of her natural rights, he subjected her to a series of unworthy persecutions. Because she chose to marry contrary to his wish, he confined her in the Tower, where she became mad, and died 1615.

15. *Did the English kings at this time venture to oppress subjects?*—They assumed the right to commit many arbitrary acts, in virtue of their prerogative, contrary to the principles of Magna Charta.

16. *What was the fate of Sir Walter Raleigh?*—He was arraigned on a charge of treason, and was beheaded in 1618.

17. *Who was Lord Bacon?*—He was an eminent statesman and philosophical writer in the reign of James I.; but was found to be guilty of official corruption, and suffered a fine of £40,000.

18. *What was the 'Plantation of Ulster?'*—It was a scheme of James I. for taking possession of the lands of the Earls of Tyrone and Tyrconnel, in Ulster, in the north of Ireland—these lords having been defeated in a general rebellion, 1603. The 'Plantation' consisted in parcelling out the lands among English and Scottish settlers; which project was carried out with military violence, 1608, and Ulster, with Belfast as its capital, has ever since been noted for its Protestant community.

19. *When were Baronets first created?*—Baronets were first created by James I. in 1611, the distinction being offered as an inducement to render aid in the Plantation of Ulster; but practically, the distinction was purchased by persons in the rank of gentlemen for £1000. There was subsequently, 1625, a creation of Nova Scotia Baronets, on more moderate terms. In later times, baronetcies have been granted only for important public services.

20. *When did James I. die?*—He died in 1625, and was succeeded by his surviving son, Charles I., who, though possessing many excellent qualities, unfortunately entertained still higher notions of the royal prerogative than his father, which soon led to a collision between him and his English and Scottish subjects.

21. *Who was Buckingham?*—George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, was an unworthy favourite and parasite of James I., whom he in various ways deceived. Buckingham was assassinated by Felton, a retired subaltern officer, 1628.

22. *How did Charles I. come into collision with parliament?*—Charles having given deep offence by his arbitrary and illegal measures, parliament refused to vote supplies (money to carry on public affairs), whereupon, the king proceeded to levy taxes at his own will.

23. *What was Ship-money?*—It was a tax arbitrarily imposed to support the navy by Charles I. in 1634. With some similar measures, it caused great public resentment, and placed the king in still greater antagonism to parliament.

24. *Who were the Fifth Monarchy Men?*—They were a body of religious enthusiasts in England, who came prominently into notice in the reign of Charles I. Reckoning that there had been four great monarchies in the world—the Assyrian,

Persian, Græco-Macedonian, and Roman—they believed that there was to be a Fifth monarchy, in which Christ was to be king. This monarchy, which was to last a millennium, or a thousand years, was thought to be at hand in 1645.

25. *Who were the Independents?*—They were a numerous religious body in England, who came into existence in the reign of Elizabeth, and afterwards played a prominent part in the great Civil War. They derived their name from the principle which they advocated, that each congregation should regulate its own affairs, and be independent alike of bishops or presbyteries.

26. *Who were the Presbyterians?*—They were a religious body, comprising nearly the whole Scottish nation and a section of the English, who held that all ministers or ‘preaching’ elders should be of equal rank, and that the church ought to be governed by these, assisted by a certain number of lay-elders.

27. *What were Nonconformists?*—They were Puritans of various sects—Independents, Presbyterians, and others—who would not conform to the Church of England, and were subjected to the operation of severe laws against Nonconformity, in the reigns of James I. and Charles I.

28. *Who were the ‘Pilgrim Fathers?’*—They were a body of English Nonconformists who had fled from persecution, in the reign of James I., to Holland, and there, after some years, resolved to emigrate to an English settlement in North America.

29. *State some facts concerning their emigration.*—They came from Holland to England, and with some difficulty embarked in a small vessel called the *Mayflower*, which reached Cape Cod, Massachusetts. Having explored the neighbouring shores, the party, 102 in number, landed at a place afterwards named New Plymouth, December 11, 1620, and there they began their settlement.

30. *What measures did Charles I. pursue respecting the church in Scotland?*—Contrary to the feelings of the people, who preferred Presbyterianism, he intruded bishops on the church, and also a Liturgy or Service-book—his reason for doing so, being the fancy that episcopacy alone was compatible with a monarchical system of government.

31. *How were these measures received?*—The people broke out into a tumult in one of the churches of Edinburgh, on Sunday July 23, 1637, and the Service-book was withdrawn.

32. *What was the National Covenant?*—It was a publicly-subscribed declaration, in which the Scots engaged to stand by

each other, in opposition to the projects of Charles I. The date of this event was 1638, and the immediate result was the abolition of Episcopacy, and the re-establishment of Presbyterianism in Scotland.

33. *Who were the Covenanters?*—This term was applied first to those who subscribed the National Covenant; but as there were subsequent Covenants, so were there different bodies of Covenanters, extended over a period of fifty years.

34. *Who were the Cavaliers?*—The term Cavalier party was applied to those who adhered to the royal cause and usages of the Church of England, in opposition to the 'Roundheads,' consisting of Independents and others who adhered to the parliament.

35. *Who was Strafford?*—Sir Thomas Wentworth, created Earl of Strafford, was an able but haughty and imperious statesman, who, as minister to Charles I., counselled those strong and illegal measures which led to the king's ruin. Parliament having gained the ascendancy, passed a bill of attainder against Strafford, who was beheaded, 1641.

36. *What was the Star-Chamber?*—It was a court instituted by Henry VII., consisting of a committee of the king's privy-council, held in an apartment at Westminster; it is ordinarily said that the name was taken from stars in the roof of the chamber; but the correctness of this supposition is doubtful.

37. *How did the Court of Star-Chamber act?*—Holding itself to be unfettered by rules of law, and responding to the extreme principles of the royal prerogative, it acted in a most arbitrary and oppressive manner. Having been employed by James I. and Charles I. to stem the progress of civil and religious liberty, the Star-chamber was abolished as an intolerable grievance in 1641.

38. *What was the Court of High Commission?*—It was an ecclesiastical court instituted by Queen Elizabeth, which was composed of forty-four commissioners, twelve of whom were clergymen; its jurisdiction extended over all England, and took cognizance of and regulated all religious opinions, and latterly by torture, fines, and imprisonment, endeavoured to force uniformity to the Established Church; it was abolished in 1641.

39. *When did the great Civil War break out?*—It broke out in 1642; the opposing forces being the royal or cavalier troops under Charles I. and his nephew, Prince Rupert, and the parliamentary army, chiefly Independents and Presbyterians, commanded at first by the Earl of Essex.

40. *Who was Oliver Cromwell?*—He was an English gentleman of small fortune, who, by his sagacity and his abilities as a military disciplinarian, rose to be commander of the parliamentary forces, to whose affection he recommended himself by his religious zeal as an Independent.

41. *Who was John Hampden?*—He was a patriotic English gentleman, who had been subjected to persecution for not paying ship-money. On the outbreak of hostilities, he took the side of the parliament, but he was wounded in an engagement with the royal troops, and died six days afterwards, 1643. To Hampden has been assigned the highest rank among English patriots.

42. *What was the Assembly of Divines at Westminster?*—It was a meeting held under the authority of parliament in 1643, at which delegates from England and Scotland, adopted the 'Solemn League and Covenant,' fixed on the establishment of Presbyterian church-government in the three kingdoms, and drew up a general Confession of Faith, a 'Directory of Public Worship,' also the well-known 'Larger' and 'Shorter Catechism.' According to the Solemn League and Covenant, Episcopacy was to be extirpated, and for a time, accordingly, it was not even tolerated in subordination to the Presbyterian system.

43. *Who was Laud?*—William Laud was an ecclesiastic, who rose to be archbishop of Canterbury in the reign of Charles I., in which position he aided the king in his attempt to force Episcopacy on Scotland. Laud's arbitrary, illegal, and cruel acts led to a bill of attainder being passed by parliament, declaring him guilty of high treason, and he was beheaded, January 1644—1645.

44. *Who was the Marquis of Montrose?*—James Graham, Marquis of Montrose, was an eminent Scottish general who adopted the royal cause and gained several victories over the Covenanters. At length, he was defeated at Philiphaugh, 1645, and was ultimately captured and executed at Edinburgh, 1650.

45. *What were the chief battles in England during the Civil War?*—The battle of Edge Hill in 1642, which was indecisive; the battle of Marston Moor in 1644, gained by the parliamentary forces; and the battle of Naseby in 1645, also gained by the parliamentary forces, by which the royal cause was irretrievably lost.

46. *What was the fate of Charles I.?*—He sought the protection of a Scots army, who gave him up to the English on paying a large sum of money (£400,000) claimed as arrears.

The unfortunate king was some time in confinement at Carisbrook Castle, Isle of Wight; at last he was tried and condemned for levying war against the people, and was beheaded at Whitehall, January 30, 1648-1649.¹

47. *Who were the surviving children of Charles I.?*—Charles, Prince of Wales; James, Duke of York; Henry, who died unmarried; Mary, who married William II., Prince of Orange, and whose son became William III. of England; Elizabeth, who died of grief in prison; and Henrietta-Maria, who married Philip, Duke of Orleans.

48. *What was the Commonwealth?*—It was the government established on the execution of Charles I. and abolition of monarchy, early in 1649. Nominally, it was a republic, at the head of which was Oliver Cromwell, assisted by a council. The Commonwealth, however, was in reality a military despotism, with Cromwell as Dictator.

49. *Did the Scots accept the Commonwealth?*—No; they set up Charles Prince of Wales as Charles II., and took the field in the cause of monarchy, but were completely defeated by Cromwell at Dunbar, September 3, 1650. Exactly a year afterwards, Charles II. was defeated at Worcester, and for safety retired to the Continent.

50. *Did the Irish accept the Commonwealth?*—No; but they were forced to submit to it by Cromwell, who in 1649 landed in Ireland with a large army, and by his severities struck terror into the nation. Many of the fine monuments of antiquity in Ireland were at this time laid in ruin.

51. *What was the Long Parliament?*—It was the parliament which began its sittings in 1640, and carried on the contest against Charles I. It continued to exist twelve years, and would have continued longer, but Cromwell, with a body of soldiers, abruptly turned out all the members, locked the door, and put the key in his pocket, 20th April 1653. The Council of State now appointed Cromwell LORD PROTECTOR.

52. *What was the 'Barebones Parliament'?*—It was a parliament called together by Cromwell, composed partly of individuals remarkable for ignorance and fanaticism; gaining no public respect, it was soon dissolved. It was denominated the *Barebones Parliament* from the name of one of the members, a leather-seller, who was named Praise-God Barebones.

53. *Who were Van Tromp, De Ruyter, and De Witt?*—They were Dutch naval commanders, who, in 1652, in a war between

¹ See *Miscellaneous Questions*, p. 121.

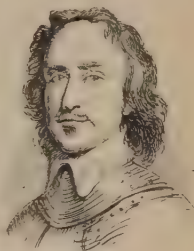
Holland and Great Britain, committed great havoc on English shipping. At length, some successes by Admiral Blake caused the Dutch to sue for peace.

54. *When was Jamaica acquired by Britain?*—It was captured by a British fleet from the Spaniards during the Protectorate of Cromwell, 1655, and was formally ceded 1670.

55. *How long did Cromwell occupy the position of Protector?*—About five years, until his death in 1658, during which time he with a strong hand maintained the honour of England, extended commerce, and preserved internal peace.

56. *Who succeeded Oliver Cromwell?*—His son Richard; but he remained in power only a short period, and gladly retired into private life.

57. *How was the government conducted after Richard Cromwell retired?*—It was imperfectly carried on by a wretched remnant of parliament; and the people found that all their efforts in the cause of liberty had ended in a government of unscrupulous adventurers, whose only ruling principle was violence.



Oliver Cromwell.

58. *What was the 'Restoration?'*—It was the restoring of the monarchy, which was effected by the army under General Monk; in the midst of universal rejoicing, Charles II. was proclaimed king at Westminster, May 8, 1660—a notable event in British history.

59. *In restoring monarchy, did the nation exact any security for their liberties from Charles II.?*—No; this they neglected to do, in their thankfulness to get back a settled and respectable form of government.

60. *When did Elizabeth Stuart, ex-Queen of Bohemia, die?*—She died October 13, 1662, in the hospitable mansion of Lord Craven, London, where she had lived for about a year on returning from the continent. The house in which she died had formerly belonged to Sir Robert Drury, and from it originated the name 'Drury Lane.'

61. *When was the Great Plague of London?*—In 1665, when large numbers—some say as many as 100,000—died.

62. *When was the Great Fire of London?*—September 2, 1666, when a large part of the city was destroyed, including St Paul's. The present St Paul's Cathedral was soon afterwards built by Sir Christopher Wren.

63. *Was the Church of England reinstated at the Restoration?*—Yes; the religious paroxysm which broke out in a variety of sects was exhausted in England, and the transactions of the Assembly of Divines at Westminster, which had met in 1643, were repudiated.

64. *What was the state of affairs in Scotland after the Restoration?*—The people anticipated the full restoration of Presbyterianism; but Charles II. caused an Episcopacy (without the liturgy) to be established in 1662; certain tests or oaths were also imposed; whereupon there was a renewal of Covenants, and sundry insurrections.

65. *What was the era of the 'Persecution' in Scotland?*—It extended from 1664 till about 1687, having exceeded the life of Charles II.

66. *Who was Titus Oates?*—He was a person of infamous character, who, taking advantage of public credulity, began in 1678 to give information concerning a pretended Popish plot to destroy the king and Protestant religion; through his false accusations many innocent persons were imprisoned, and several executed. The treachery of Oates was afterwards discovered, and as a punishment, he was fined, whipped, and set in the pillory.



Titus Oates.

67. *What was the 'Habeas Corpus Act'?*—It was an act of the English parliament passed in 1679, limiting the time between the apprehension of a supposed criminal and his trial; in virtue of which act alleged criminals can apply by writ of *Habeas Corpus* to have it determined whether their committal be just. The term *Habeas Corpus* signifies have the body (or person) of.

68. *Was not the principle of the Habeas Corpus Act embodied in Magna Charta?*—It was; the act of 1679, in the reign of Charles II., only rectified the procedure under the old law.

69. *Does the Habeas Corpus Act extend to Scotland?*—It does in principle, under a different name. Over the whole British dominions, the great principle of the *Habeas Corpus* Act extends, and forms a shield against lengthened imprisonment before trial.

70. *Who was the Duke of Monmouth?*—He was an illegitimate son of Charles II., who was employed as a general of the

royal forces in Scotland to suppress the Covenanters, and commanded at the battle of Bothwell Bridge, 1679, when the insurgents were routed.

71. *Who were the Cameronians?*—They were a party of Scottish Covenanters, and took their name from Richard Cameron, one of their ministers, who was killed in a skirmish in 1680.

72. *Who was George Fox?*—He was a person in humble life in England, who became affected with religious enthusiasm during the civil wars, and originated the sect known as ‘Quakers,’ or, as they designate themselves, ‘Friends.’

73. *Were the Quakers persecuted?*—Yes; they suffered much persecution, and many were ignominiously transported to Massachusetts, where they were treated with unjustifiable severity by the Pilgrim Fathers and other settlers.

74. *Having fled from persecution, did the Pilgrim Fathers themselves persecute?*—Yes; in their settlement they insisted on conformity with their own forms of worship; in which respect they exercised precisely the same species of oppression as that from which they had fled. They also condemned many persons for witchcraft, and burned them at the stake.

75. *What was Witchcraft?*—It was alleged to be a power of committing various acts of a malignant nature through diabolical assistance; those invested with this supernatural power were styled witches.

76. *Was witchcraft an ancient superstition?*—Yes; but a belief in it rose to be a kind of frenzy in Europe in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and spread to the English colonies in America. In Great Britain, the belief in witchcraft was at its height from the reign of James I. to the reign of Charles II.; and for this imaginary crime many thousands of unfortunate individuals were executed, chiefly by being burned at the stake.

77. *Who were ‘Witch-finders?’*—Such was the name given to a set of wretches in England, headed by one Matthew Hopkins, who, at the middle of the seventeenth century, moved from place to place to search for witches, and forced them to confess by various kinds of arbitrary tortures. In Scotland, the principal witch-prosecutors were the parish ministers and kirk-sessions, of whose proceedings history offers some extraordinary accounts.

78. *What was Judicial Torture?*—It was severe bodily pain inflicted by a court of justice in order to compel accused

persons to confess a knowledge of the crimes charged against them. Judicial torture was practised in England until 1558, but was continued as late as 1690 in Scotland, where squeezing the thumbs in a small vice, and crushing the legs in a case by means of wedges, were the more common kinds of infliction.

79. *Who was Roger Williams?*—He was a young Welsh clergyman belonging to the Church of England, who, having emigrated to Massachusetts in 1631, was persecuted and banished by the Pilgrim Fathers for nonconformity. He afterwards founded the settlement, called 'Rhode Island' and the city of Providence, where all forms of religious worship were freely allowed.

80. *What honour has English history assigned to Roger Williams?*—The distinguished honour of being the first person in authority who proclaimed and reduced to practice the principle of perfect religious equality and toleration. Williams, who was a truly noble character, died at Providence, 1683.

81. *Who was William Penn?*—He was a son of Admiral Sir William Penn, a gentleman of property in Wiltshire, and embraced the tenets of the Quakers, which he fervently preached in the reign of Charles II. From this monarch he procured a patent in 1681, to found a settlement in North America, where the Society of Friends might live unmolested.

82. *What was Penn's settlement called?*—It was called *Pennsylvania*, and in it Penn founded the city of Philadelphia (signifying *Brotherly love*) as its capital, 1682. The settlement, like that of Roger Williams, was organised on principles of perfect toleration, and is noted for the honest manner in which the founder purchased lands from the natives, instead of, as was customary, taking them by force. William Penn, who died in 1718, is one of the most estimable characters in English biography.

83. *What was the Rye-House Plot?*—It was said to be a conspiracy to murder Charles II. and his brother, the Duke of York, and place the Duke of Monmouth on the throne, 1683. It took its name from the alleged place of meeting, the Rye-House, in Hertfordshire.

84. *Who was Lord William Russell?*—He was a son of the Earl of Bedford, who, professing opinions opposed to the arbitrary measures of the government, was charged with complicity in the Rye-House Plot; he was tried and condemned, and beheaded in Lincoln's Inn Fields, July 21, 1683.

85. *Who was Algernon Sydney?*—Like Lord William Russell,

he was a distinguished patriot, who was tried and condemned, and was beheaded on Tower Hill, December 8, 1683.

86. *When did Charles II. die?*—He died February 6, 1685, and was succeeded by his brother James, Duke of York, as James II. of England and James VII. of Scotland, in whose reign things came to a fresh crisis, for adversity had not taught the Stuarts moderation.

87. *What was the chief fault found with James II.?*—It was that he seemed resolved to restore the papal power in England, and re-establish Roman Catholicism by an exercise of absolute authority.

88. *What was 'Passive Obedience?'*—By 'passive obedience' was meant an entire submission to the will of the king, without regard to any existing laws. The university of Oxford having promulgated an elaborate declaration of passive obedience to rulers, James II. was encouraged to pursue his unhappy career.

89. *What was the fate of the Duke of Monmouth?*—He raised a rebellion against James II., in order, as he said, to secure the Protestant religion, and to deliver the country from the tyranny of James II. In this attempt he was defeated and captured, and beheaded July 15, 1685.

90. *What family had James II.?*—He was twice married; by his first marriage he had two daughters, Mary and Anne; and by his second marriage a son, James, born June 10, 1688.

91. *Who was the Prince of Orange?*—William III., Prince of Orange, Stadtholder or head of the States in Holland, was a son of Mary Stuart, daughter of Charles I., and had married his cousin, Mary, daughter of James II. As a resolute statesman and Protestant, he was invited to come to England and conduct the government.

92. *When did James II. quit England?*—Fearing the fate of his father, he left England with his wife and infant son for France, December 23, 1688.

93. *When did William Prince of Orange land in England?*—He landed at Torbay, November 5, 1688, and arrived at St James's on the same day that his father-in-law quitted Whitehall.

94. *What parliamentary proceedings took place on this occasion?*—The English parliament declared the throne vacant, and the Scots Convention of Estates resolved that James II. —or James VII., as he was styled in Scotland—had forfeited the crown. In England and Scotland William and Mary were proclaimed joint-sovereigns, 1689.

95. *What was the 'Revolution of 1688?'*—Such was the name given to the irregular change of dynasty in 1688, rendered unavoidable by the conduct of James II., the last of the Stuart kings.

96. *What ensued in Scotland at the Revolution?*—The Convention of Estates was transformed into a Parliament; the Episcopacy of Charles II. was dis-established; and the Presbyterian form of church-government which now exists was established, 1690.

97. *Who was Viscount Dundee?*—He was John Graham of Claverhouse, created Viscount Dundee by James II., and as a military commander had been actively engaged in the dismal war carried on against the more intractable Covenanters; after the Revolution, he adhered to the fallen cause of the Stuarts.

98. *What was the battle of Killiecrankie?*—It was a battle fought by the troops of William and Mary against the forces which were held together in Scotland by Viscount Dundee in name of James II.; in the encounter, which took place July 27, 1689, Dundee fell by the shot of a bullet in the moment of victory; and shortly afterwards, there was a general submission in Scotland to the Revolution Settlement.

99. *What ensued in Ireland at the Revolution?*—The Irish parliament, and many who were Roman Catholics, adhered to James II.; while the Protestant party fled to Londonderry and other fortified towns, where they made a desperate resistance, until succoured by King William.

100. *What was the siege of Londonderry?*—It was a siege endured by the Irish Protestants in the fortified city of Londonderry against the forces of King James, 1689; this famous siege lasted 105 days, in which, from 8000 to 9000 people perished by famine, disease, or the shot of the enemy. Succour having arrived, July 30, the siege was raised, and the heroic garrison saved.

101. *Did King James personally aid his friends in Ireland?*—Yes; he arrived from France with a small army, in order to sustain his cause, in which, however, he was unsuccessful.

102. *What was the battle of the Boyne?*—It was a battle fought on the banks of the river Boyne, near Drogheda, between the forces of James and William, July 1, 1690. William gained a complete victory. Shortly afterwards, James retired to France; his cause was utterly lost at Aughrim, July 12, 1691.

103. *Who was Schomberg?*—The Duke of Schomberg was a Dutch general, an attached friend of William, whom he

accompanied to the battle of the Boyne ; in leading his troops across the river, he was killed by a shot ; and the death of this old and valued soldier was felt by William almost to outweigh his victory.

104. *What was the last part of the British Islands that held out for King James ?*—It was the Bass, a small rocky island at the mouth of the Firth of Forth, which, in the hands of a few youthful adventurers, held out for King James till April 1694, and then only through famine, surrendered on honourable terms.

105. *What was the Declaration of Rights ?*—It was a document prepared by the English parliament, and ratified by William and Mary, and forms an important contract between sovereign and people. It confirms the principle that kings rule only according to law, through their ministers and a free parliament. A similar compact was entered into with the Scots parliament. These, along with some other measures, constitute what is usually styled the 'Revolution Settlement.'

106. *What was the Mutiny Act ?*—It was an act passed in 1689, to give perfect security to the nation against military despotism.

107. *Explain the provisions of the Mutiny Act.*—According to this law, the sovereign cannot raise or maintain an army without the consent of parliament ; officers and common soldiers are not to be exempt from processes of law ; and the Bill requires renewal every year—if not renewed by parliament, the whole army would be dissolved.

108. *Who were the Jacobites ?*—They were adherents of the exiled monarch, James II., from the Latinised form of whose name (Jacobus) they received their designation.

109. *Who were the Whigs ?*—The term *Whig* originated in Scotland, where it was reproachfully applied, in the Civil War, to the more stern and zealous of the Presbyterians ; at length, it was extended to all who adhered to the principles of the Revolution Settlement.

110. *Who were the Tories ?*—The appellation Tory is said to have originated in Ireland. It was afterwards applied reproachfully to the members of the party in parliament during the reign of Charles II., who adhered to the measures of the court.

111. *What was the Massacre of Glencoe ?*—It was the slaughter by military execution of thirty-eight individuals of the clan Macdonald in Glencoe, Argyleshire, on the 13th February 1692 ; the slaughter having taken place by a warrant signed by

King William, proceeding on the ground that Macdonald of Glencoe, head of the clan, had not taken the oath of allegiance by the prescribed day, December 31, 1691.

112. *What has been said of the Massacre of Glencoe?*—That it was a most atrocious and unjustifiable act, and as such, greatly damages the character of William; the king, however, acted by the advice of his Scottish ministers of state, particularly Sir John Dalrymple, Secretary of State for Scotland, who afterwards became Earl of Stair—and on him rests the chief disgrace of this transaction.

113. *What was the Darien Expedition?*—It was an attempt on the part of the Scots to found a colony for commercial purposes on the Isthmus of Darien, for which, by a great national effort, the sum of £400,000 was subscribed, 1696. Through the jealousy of the Dutch, English, and Spaniards, and also some imperfect management, the scheme proved abortive, and led to much discontent.

114. *When did Mary, consort of King William, die?*—She died in 1694, after which event the king reigned alone as William III. until 1702, when he died.

115. *When did the National Debt commence?*—It commenced in the reign of William III., as a consequence of his foreign wars. Regular banks, including the Bank of England and Bank of Scotland, were also established in his reign.

116. *What was the character of the seventeenth century?*—The seventeenth century was marked by turbulence and civil wars in England, Scotland, and Ireland; which disorders arose from the contest of two principles—the principle of civil liberty and the principle of absolute authority. The struggle between these two principles was provoked by the Stuarts, and ended in their ruin.

117. *Did parliament under King William give perfect toleration to all religious sects?*—No; the laws, though greatly modified, did not tolerate the Roman Catholic form of worship, nor did they tolerate in Scotland the forms of the Protestant Episcopal Church. As regards perfect religious liberty, there were still, therefore, various deficiencies, the cause of future trouble.

118. *What were Nonjurors?*—They were clergymen who declined to swear an oath of allegiance to William and Mary—the term *Nonjuror* signifying Non-swearer. The dis-established Episcopal clergy in Scotland were for a time Nonjurors.

119. *Who succeeded King William?*—Anne, daughter of

the exiled James II., who had been reared in England as a Protestant. She succeeded in virtue of an act of parliament passed in 1689, excluding Roman Catholics from the throne.

120. *What was the War of the Spanish Succession?*—It was a war which began in 1701, in the reign of King William; its object was to prevent a grandson of Louis XIV. of France from inheriting the crown of Spain, as it was feared that if he did so, the power of the French would be too great in Europe.

121. *Who were the principal parties in this war?*—On one side were England, Germany, and Holland—these powers being called the Grand Alliance; on the other side were France and Spain.

122. *Who was Marlborough?*—John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, was the greatest general and statesman of his time; he commanded in the wars of King William and Queen Anne, against the French, by whom he was popularly known as 'Malbrook.' Unfortunately for his memory, it has been discovered that while serving King William and Queen Anne, he was secretly in the pay of the exiled royal family—a species of dishonesty very common among public men at this period.



Queen Anne.

123. *In what great battles was Marlborough victorious in the reign of Queen Anne?*—Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet. After the first victory, he was rewarded by parliament with the estate called Woodstock, in England, and Queen Anne began to build for him the palace of Blenheim.

124. *When was Gibraltar taken by the English?*—Gibraltar was captured from the Spaniards in 1704, and though several times besieged, it has ever since remained a British possession.

125. *Was Queen Anne married?*—Yes; she had married George Prince of Denmark before she became queen; and she had seventeen children, all of whom predeceased her.

126. *What was the Act of Settlement?*—It was an act of parliament passed in the reign of William III., June 12, 1701, settling the succession to the throne; in the event of Anne dying without issue, the succession was limited to the descendants of Elizabeth Stuart, daughter of James I., being

Protestants. As Sophia, wife of the Elector of Hanover, was the only surviving child of Elizabeth, who was a Protestant, all looked to her or her son as the successor of Queen Anne.

127. *Who was the ' Pretender ?'*—Such was the name given to James, son of James II., who, on the death of his father in 1701, was recognised by the Jacobites as rightful heir to the throne, under the title of James III. ; the designation *Pretender* was given by the Whigs. The Pretender was also called the ' Chevalier de St George.'

128. *What was the Court of St Germain ?*—It was the court of the exiled royal family at St Germain, in France, and was noted as a centre of projects to recover the throne. Pensioned by France, James II., and afterwards his son, the Pretender, were able to give secret bribes to Marlborough and others to secure their assistance.

129. *On what did the Jacobites found their hopes ?*—They thought that as there had been one Restoration, so might there be another ; and under this impression, they had long an expectation of seeing the Stuarts once more on the throne.

130. *What effect had these hopes on the English Whigs ?*—Fearing that the Stuarts might secure a footing in Scotland, they pressed forward the project of a thorough legislative union of the two kingdoms.

131. *Was the proposal of Union readily accepted by the Scots ?*—No ; it was violently opposed, more particularly by Andrew Fletcher of Salton ; and the act authorising the Union, was carried in the Scots parliament only by the administration of money bribes to a number of the members.

132. *When did the Union of England and Scotland take place ?*—After much debate in both countries, a treaty of union was enacted, which came into operation on the 1st of May, 1707. On the 23d of October that year, the first united parliament of Great Britain met at Westminster. This event was the most important that took place in the reign of Queen Anne.

133. *What were the mutual advantages of the Union ?*—The English secured a firm alliance with a nation that had been a trouble to them for ages ; on the other hand, the Scots benefited by having the whole English dominions open to their enterprise, while at the same time they preserved their peculiar national institutions. History presents no instance of a more equitable, and, as it proved, more successful union of two nations.

134. *What was parliament called after the Union?*—It was called the **BRITISH PARLIAMENT**, and embraced representatives from England and Scotland—the parliament of Ireland being still left in that country.

135. *What was the flag of England previous to the Union?*—It was the cross of St George.

136. *What was the flag of Scotland previous to the Union?*—It was the cross of St Andrew.

137. *What was the flag of Great Britain after the Union?*—It was the crosses of St George and St Andrew blended, constituting a flag known as the *Union Jack*.

138. *Mention some noteworthy particulars concerning England at the Union?*—The population of England and Wales was little more than 5,000,000; the value of the whole annual exports was about £8,000,000; and the population of London and its suburbs was only about 500,000.

139. *Mention some noteworthy particulars concerning Scotland at the Union?*—The population was under 1,000,000, and comprehended at least 100,000 beggars and vagrants; the annual government revenue was no more than £110,000; the annual value of exports to England was but £130,000; and the population of Glasgow had not risen above 13,000.

140. *What is learned from a consideration of these particulars?*—We are made aware of the very backward condition of Great Britain, the prosperity of which had been greatly retarded by internal wars and other social disorders during the seventeenth century.

141. *Did England and Scotland correspondingly advance after the Union?*—No; as more favoured by circumstances, England advanced the most rapidly; besides having most to recover, Scotland was fated to endure the commotions of two rebellions, and hence its progress is of comparatively recent date.

142. *What were the Sacheverell riots?*—They were riots in London in 1710, fomented by a mischievous sermon preached by Dr Henry Sacheverell before the Lord Mayor, 5th November 1709, denouncing the Revolution and the toleration of Dissenters; several chapels of Dissenters were burned on the occasion; the tumults were at length suppressed by the military. Sacheverell was tried for his seditious harangue by the House of Lords, and suspended as a preacher for three years; but the clergy, the country gentry, and the mob, espoused his cause, and for a time he was a very popular person.

143. *What was the Treaty of Utrecht?*—It was a treaty of peace between Great Britain and France, to which some other states acceded, 1713. It closed the Spanish War of Succession. By this treaty, the French king recognised the Protestant succession of the House of Hanover, to the exclusion of the Stuarts, and conceded various commercial advantages; Nova Scotia and some other colonial possessions were also given up to England.

144. *When did Queen Anne die?*—She died August 1, 1714, and with her expired the last member of the House of Stuart on the throne of Great Britain.

British History, from 1714 till the Reign of Queen Victoria.

1. *Who was George I.?*—He was George, Elector of Hanover, son of Sophia, youngest daughter of Elizabeth Stuart, Queen of Bohemia, who was daughter of James I. He succeeded to the throne on the demise of Queen Anne, August 1, 1714.

2. *Why did the succession devolve on Sophia and her descendants?*—Because all the other children of Elizabeth Stuart were either dead or had become Roman Catholics; Sophia, as the only Protestant in the family, would, in terms of the Act of Settlement, have succeeded as queen, but she died a few months before Queen Anne.

3. *What was the surname of the new dynasty?*—It was *Guelph*, but usually the dynasty is spoken of as the 'House of Hanover,' or 'House of Brunswick'—George I. having inherited from his father the dukedom of Brunswick-Luneburg.

4. *Did George retain Hanover on acceding to the throne?*—Yes; he remained Elector of Hanover, and conducted the government of that country by deputy; Hanover, accordingly, continued for more than a century to be a continental principality of the British sovereigns.

5. *Could George I. speak English?*—Yes; but he spoke it very badly; and he brought with him a son, George, who also had neither the language nor the manners of a native-born Englishman—circumstances which tended to limit the popularity of the new dynasty.

6. *Were any efforts made by the Jacobites to prevent the accession of the Hanover family?*—No; the designs they entertained in favour of the Pretender were frustrated by the sudden demise of Queen Anne, and George I. was called to the throne without opposition.

7. *Who was Bolingbroke?*—Henry St John, Lord Bolingbroke, was a Tory statesman, minister of Queen Anne; having, like many of his party, intrigued with the Jacobites to bring in the Pretender, he fled to France at the accession of the Hanover family, but afterwards returned to England. He wrote some historical works, and speculative treatises.

8. *What is the Riot Act?*—It is a statute, enacted in 1715, in the reign of George I., which permits military force to be used in dispersing a riotous mob, after a certain space of time has been allowed; the principle of this celebrated act, however, was not new to English law, for there was a statute passed in the reign of Edward VI., rendering it treason for a crowd not to disperse after proclamation.

9. *What was the Rebellion of 1715?*—It was a rebellion in Scotland and the north of England to re-establish the Stuart dynasty in the person of the Pretender, or, as he was styled, James III., who landed in Scotland to aid in the enterprise.

10. *Who was the Earl of Mar?*—He was a Scottish nobleman, who raised the standard of rebellion in 1715, but his forces were defeated at Sheriffmuir, November 13; and on the same day the English rebels surrendered at Preston; by which means this ill-advised insurrection was speedily terminated.

11. *Who was the Earl of Derwentwater?*—He was an English nobleman who unhappily appeared in arms in the rebellion of 1715, but was taken prisoner at Preston, and beheaded in February 1716; Viscount Kenmure and about twenty inferior persons were also executed. The Earls of Mar and Nithsdale and the Pretender escaped to France.

12. *Who was Sir Robert Walpole?*—He was an eminent Whig statesman and prime-minister in the reigns of George I. and George II.; it was in a great degree to his prudence, vigilance, and good management that the plans of the Jacobites were frustrated, and the Hanover family fixed permanently on the throne. He was created Earl of Orford, and died in 1745.

13. *Was not Walpole accused of corrupt practices?*—He was, and with some truth. Living in an age in which there was little political honesty, he was in the habit of securing public men by bribes, and is reputed to have been the author of the memorable saying, that 'All men have their price.'

14. *For what was General Wade noted?*—He was noted for the military roads which he surveyed and constructed in the Highlands, under the authority of government, between 1725 and 1735; besides opening up the country to travellers, these famed roads, along with certain forts, placed the Highlands under effectual military control.

15. *What was the South-sea Bubble?*—It was a joint-stock commercial undertaking, called the South-sea Company, which was invested with exclusive powers of trading to the South Sea, and also certain privileges connected with national finance. Commencing in 1710, it speedily degenerated into a gambling speculation in shares. The whole affair was a mixture of delusion and imposture; and when the ‘bubble’ burst in 1720, the chief culprits absconded, and great numbers were ruined.

16. *When did the Methodists originate?*—The sect of Methodists was founded by John Wesley, a person of great vigour of character and eminent for his piety, about 1729—the name *Methodists* being given from the methodic strictness of the conduct of members of the sect.

17. *When did George I. die?*—He died, June 11, 1727, and was succeeded by his son, George II., who had been a number of years married, and had two sons, Frederick, Prince of Wales, and William, Duke of Cumberland; also several daughters.

18. *What great navigator was there in the reign of George II.?*—George Lord Anson, who made various voyages exploratory of unknown parts of the globe, and added greatly to the maritime glory of England. He died, 1760.

19. *What was the Battle of Dettingen?*—It was a battle which occurred in the Austrian War of Succession, and on the part of the English was professedly undertaken to protect the king’s Hanoverian dominions. The battle, which took place June 1743, ended favourably to the British and Hanoverian forces. George II. was present, and this was the last occasion of a king of Great Britain appearing on a field of battle.

20. *What was the Battle of Fontenoy?*—It was a battle in the Austrian War of Succession between the allies (English, Dutch, and Germans) under the Duke of Cumberland, and the French under Marshal Saxe, May 1745, in which there was great slaughter. The allies were at first successful, but were afterwards beaten and forced to retreat.

21. *What children had the Pretender, who assumed the title*

of James III.?—He had two sons, Charles-Edward, ordinarily called the Young Chevalier, and Henry-Benedict, who was bred an ecclesiastic, and became known as Cardinal York.

22. *What was the Rebellion of 1745?*—It was a rebellion of the Jacobites in Scotland, headed by Prince Charles-Edward, the Young Chevalier, who, for the purpose of 'recovering the throne of his ancestors,' landed in Moidart, on the west coast of the Highlands, July 1745, and thence marched southwards with his followers.



Charles-Edward,
The Young Chevalier.

23. *Who were the followers of the Young Chevalier?*—They were principally Highlanders under their respective chiefs, along with some Lowland Scottish noblemen and gentlemen, who had clung to the shattered fortunes of the Stuarts.

24. *When did the Young Chevalier enter Edinburgh?*—On the 16th September 1745, and five days afterwards (September 21) he fought the battle of Prestonpans, in which the royal forces under General Cope were completely routed, and Colonel James Gardiner was mortally wounded. This success of the rebel arms caused extreme consternation throughout England.

25. *How far did the rebel army march southwards?*—It reached as far as Derby, and there becoming disheartened, it commenced its retreat northwards, followed by the Duke of Cumberland.

26. *When was the Battle of Culloden fought?*—On the 16th of April 1746, when the royal forces under the Duke of Cumberland gained a complete victory over the rebels. After various hardships, the Young Chevalier escaped to France, and the cause of the Stuarts was for ever lost.

27. *What noblemen suffered for aiding in the Rebellion of 1745?*—Lords Balmerino, Kilmarnock, and Loyat, all of whom were beheaded.

28. *When did the line of Stuart become extinct?*—It became extinct by the death of Cardinal York, 1807, who survived his brother, Charles-Edward, nineteen years. Long before this event, the Stuarts had vanished from popular remembrance.

29. *What effect had the extinction of the Rebellion on Scotland?*—Immediately after the rebellion, the country shook off various

retarding influences, and started forward in a course of improvement ; its advance was greatly promoted by the abolition of the heritable jurisdictions, and the institution of sheriffs on a proper footing.

30. *What were the Heritable Jurisdictions?*—They were rights of civil and criminal jurisdiction possessed heritably by certain families in connection with their lands, and were the source of much oppression and cruelty. As it was in virtue of these ancient and ill-defined rights that Highland chiefs exercised control over their clans, their abolition became a matter of public safety.

31. *When were the Scottish heritable jurisdictions abolished?*—They were abolished, along with all hereditary sheriffships, by an act of parliament, which came into operation in 1748 ; since which period, sheriffs and other judicial functionaries in Scotland have been appointed by the crown.

32. *What was the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle?*—It was a treaty of peace in 1748—closing the Austrian War of Succession—between Great Britain, Austria, and Holland, on the one hand, and France, Spain, and Bavaria on the other, by which Britain and France restored their conquests, and agreed to stand in the condition which they occupied when the war began nine years previously. By this war thirty millions were added to the national debt.

33. *What was the Seven Years' War?*—It was a great European war, between Prussia and England on the one side, and Austria, France, and Russia on the other. It originated in the dissatisfaction felt by Maria Theresa at the result of the previous wars for the possession of Silesia, between her and Frederick the Great, and lasted from 1756 to 1763. On account of the extensive colonial possessions of France and England, however, it was not confined to the continent of Europe, but was waged all over the world.

34. *When was Calcutta taken from the English?*—It was captured on the 20th of June 1756, by Suraja Dowlah, governor of Bengal, who took the small garrison, consisting of 146 persons, prisoners.

35. *What event took place at the capture of Calcutta?*—The English prisoners, 146 in number, were confined in a small garrison prison, called the Black Hole, and from overcrowding and want of air, 123 died in a single night, leaving only 23 survivors. Calcutta was recovered by Clive.

36. *Who was Clive?*—Robert Clive was a young Englishman, who was originally only a clerk at Madras, in the Indian

Civil Service, but rose to be one of the greatest generals and statesmen of his time. His conquests were achieved in India. The greatest of his victories was the battle of Plassey, 1757, which laid the foundation of the British empire in Hindustan.

37. *How were Clive's services acknowledged?*—He was raised to the peerage under the title of Lord Clive, and his son was elevated to the earldom of Powis.

38. *Who was Admiral Byng?*—John Byng was a brave but ill-fated British admiral, who was accused of not supporting Admiral West in an attack on the French fleet in the Mediterranean, by which means that fleet escaped. For this act of alleged cowardice he was tried and condemned to death, and was executed, 1757.

39. *Who was General Wolfe?*—He was commander of the British forces sent to Canada to attack the French. On the 13th September 1759, he gained the famous battle of Quebec, but was unfortunately killed in the moment of victory. Canada, which had hitherto been a French colony, was shortly afterwards surrendered to Great Britain.

40. *When did Frederick Prince of Wales die?*—He died in 1751, leaving a large family of children, the eldest of whom was George-William-Frederick, born June 4, 1738.

41. *When was the New Style adopted in England?*—It was adopted in 1752; under the authority of an act of parliament, eleven days were dropped out of the calendar—the 3d of September being reckoned the 14th. At the same time, the year was ordered to be begun on the 1st January instead of 25th of March, as had been the practice in Scotland since 1600.

42. *When did George II. die?*—He died on the 25th October 1760, when he was succeeded by his grandson, George-William-Frederick, who assumed the title of George III.

43. *What did the nation particularly appreciate in George III.?*—He was appreciated as being a native-born Englishman, the first who was so in the Hanover line; but throughout his long reign, George III. was much esteemed for his domestic and other valuable qualities.

44. *Who was the Earl of Bute?*—He was a Scottish nobleman, appointed prime-minister by George III. in 1762; by trying to extend the power of the crown at the expense of the constitutional rights of the executive, Bute became extremely unpopular, and had to retire from office within less than a year. His most furious assailant was John Wilkes.

45. *Mention some circumstances concerning Wilkes.*—He was a member of parliament, and editor of a scurrilous paper, called the *North Briton*, in which he abused Lord Bute and the Scotch generally, and even brought accusations against the king, 1763.

46. *What was done with Wilkes?*—He was committed to the Tower, but being soon liberated, he continued for years to cause popular tumults, in which was raised the cry of 'Wilkes and Liberty!' With much foundation for his animadversions on public affairs, Wilkes was in reality a disreputable demagogue.

47. *What was the American Stamp Act?*—It was an act of parliament under the administration of Mr Grenville, 1765, imposing stamps on certain documents in the British colonies in North America—the imposition of such stamps being a method of taxing the colonists for the benefit of the mother-country.

48. *What was deemed objectionable in the Stamp Act?*—The act was objected to by the colonists on the ground that, according to a fundamental principle in the British constitution, there could be no taxation without representation. As the colonists had no representatives in parliament, they called the Stamp Act tyranny.

49. *Did government, however, persist in taxing the colonists?*—Yes; by several successive acts they proceeded to impose various taxes on the colonists—on tea, glass, colours, &c.—which at length led to a general colonial rebellion.

50. *Who were the ministers chiefly concerned in producing the colonial rebellion?*—Mr Grenville and Lord North; but King George III. was perhaps quite as much to blame as his ministers.

51. *To what party of politicians did George III. incline?*—To the Tory party, which, from the early part of the reign of George III., superseded the Whigs, who had long been in power.

52. *Who was Junius?*—Junius was an unknown writer of great ability, who, in 1769, commenced a series of letters in a newspaper, animadverting on the men and measures of government. No one has ever distinctly discovered who Junius was; but the balance of evidence is in favour of Sir Philip Francis. His letters are considered a model of pure and nervous English.

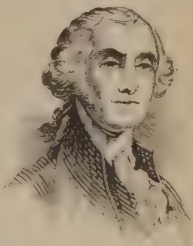
53. *When did the American War commence?*—It began in

1775 (April 18), when the colonists confronted the British troops at Lexington, Massachusetts, and the first engagement took place.

54. *When was the Battle of Bunker's Hill fought?*—It was fought June 17, 1775, when the British forces were victorious, but lost heavily.

55. *Mention some facts concerning General Washington.*—He was a distinguished Virginian who was appointed commander-in-chief of the American forces, 1775, and with consummate bravery and skill conducted the war.

56. *What was the number of British Colonies that revolted?*—Thirteen; to which there were subsequent accessions.



Washington.

57. *When did the thirteen British colonies declare their independence?*—They made their famous 'Declaration of Independence' at Philadelphia, July 4, 1776. From this time the colonies became known as the United States.

58. *How long did the American War continue?*—It continued from 1775 until 1782, and ended in the complete withdrawal of the British forces, and in the acknowledgment by George III. of the absolute independence of the colonies. By the American war a hundred millions were added to the national debt, and the crown lost three millions of subjects.

59. *Were the Americans assisted by foreigners in throwing off the British authority?*—Yes; France, Spain, Holland, and some other countries took part with the Americans, by which means a general war ensued.

60. *Who was Rodney?*—Sir George Rodney was a British admiral, who gained a great victory over the French fleet in 1782, for which and other services he was created a peer, with the title of Lord Rodney, and was rewarded with a pension by parliament.

61. *What is now thought of the American War?*—The universal opinion in England now is, that the colonists were in the right, and that the war against them was wrong. The great English statesmen then living were always against it. The Earl of Chatham affirmed that the colonists would have been slaves if they had not resisted; and the younger Pitt denounced the war as 'conceived in injustice and nurtured

in folly,' as 'impious' and 'detestable;' and praised the colonists as 'men fighting in the holy cause of liberty.'

62. *What eminent English writer supported government in the project of taxing the colonies?*—Dr Samuel Johnson, who wrote a pamphlet on the subject, entitled *Taxation no Tyranny*.

63. *Who was Charles James Fox?*—He was a celebrated Whig statesman, second son of the first Lord Holland, who came into public notice in 1770, and was ultimately distinguished as the parliamentary opponent of Mr Pitt.

64. *Who was Mr Pitt?*—William Pitt was a celebrated statesman, a younger son of the Earl of Chatham. He began public life as a promoter of Reform in the House of Commons; and his political principles were always liberal, alike in matters of representation, religious opinion, and commerce; but his 'patriotism' led him to oppose the French revolutionists and the policy of Bonaparte, and led the nation into costly foreign wars. Fox was the great opponent of his foreign policy.

65. *What was the scheme of the Sinking Fund?*—It was a celebrated and fallacious scheme for paying off the National Debt, by setting aside any excess of revenue to accumulate at compound interest; both Fox and Pitt favoured this project, not perceiving that the shortest way of lessening debt is simply to discharge it as fast as possible. It was not, however, until 1813 that the fallacy of the Sinking Fund was discovered.

66. *Who was Mr Burke?*—Edmund Burke was a philosopher and politician, who attained to great distinction as a parliamentary orator in the reign of George III. He began public life as a Whig, but concluded as an adherent of Pitt. His most celebrated speech was at the opening of the trial of Warren Hastings, 1788.

67. *What were the Lord George Gordon Riots?*—They were dreadful riots in London in 1780, headed by Lord George Gordon (a son of the Duke of Gordon), in which great damage was done until they were suppressed by the military.

68. *What was the cause of the Gordon riots?*—It was the passing of a bill in parliament in 1778, relieving the Roman Catholics from some of the penal laws affecting them. The wish of the rioters was to recall this act of the legislature, and 'No Popery' was their distinguishing cry. This intemperate outbreak was entirely unsuccessful; and Lord George Gordon, who is believed to have been of unsound mind, died in Newgate prison, 1793.

69. *Who was Warren Hastings?*—He was an Englishman who, by his great abilities, rose from a humble position in India to be governor-general of that country, 1773, under the East India Company, which thanked and rewarded him for his great services.

70. *Of what was Warren Hastings accused?*—He was impeached at the bar of the House of Lords for using corrupt and unjustifiable means to increase the finances of the East India Company; his accusers were Burke, Fox, Sheridan, and other members of the Whig party. This memorable trial began in 1788, and did not end until 1795, when the House pronounced a verdict of acquittal.

71. *What maritime discoveries were made in the early part of the reign of George III.?*—Important discoveries were made in the Pacific Ocean by Captain James Cook, an eminent navigator, who was killed at Hawaii, 1779.

72. *What mechanical inventions were made in the early part of the reign of George III.?*—The steam-engine was perfected by James Watt; spinning machinery was invented by the successive efforts of James Hargreave, Richard Arkwright, and Samuel Crompton; and, finally, the power-loom was invented by the Rev. D. E. Cartwright, 1785—by all which inventions the manufacturing prosperity of the country was prodigiously increased.

73. *When were mail-coaches introduced?*—They were introduced by John Palmer of Bath in 1784; they became general in 1785, and formed a great improvement on the old methods of conveyance.

74. *When did the French Revolution break out?*—It broke out in 1789; monarchy was abolished, and a republic instituted 1792; and Louis XVI. was executed 1793.

75. *When was war proclaimed by Great Britain against the French Republic?*—War was proclaimed February 1, 1793, in order to check the progress of French revolutionary principles, and restrain French conquests.

76. *Was the French war popular?*—Yes; by all but a small party the war met with general approval, and was expected to end triumphantly for Great Britain in a very short time.

77. *How long did the French war last?*—With a short interval of peace in 1802—1803, it lasted until 1814, or altogether about nineteen years; the hopeful anticipations of its early termination being entirely falsified.

78. *Was the war from first to last against the French republic?*—No; during its progress, Napoleon Bonaparte rose to power

in France, and against him—first as consul, and afterwards as emperor—the war was carried on.

79. *What was the Treaty of Amiens?*—It was a treaty at Amiens in March 1802, establishing peace with the French, but this peace endured only until May 1803, when the war was resumed.

80. *What great naval commander arose during the early part of the French war?*—Horatio Nelson; who, for his eminent services was raised to the peerage as Lord Nelson, and afterwards elevated to a Viscountcy. Nelson was killed on board the *Victory*, at the battle of Trafalgar, October 21, 1805. His body was interred with public honours in St Paul's Cathedral.



Nelson.

81. *When was Malta captured?*—It was captured by the British from the French in 1800, after a siege of two years. The French, who had taken the island from a military order styled the Knights of Malta, were expelled; Malta remains a British possession.

82. *Did the French threaten to invade Great Britain?*—Yes; they threatened invasions of England from 1792 to 1797, and afterwards, under Bonaparte, from 1802 till 1804, but desisted from the attempt. They effected, however, an invasion of Ireland in 1798, in order to render aid to the Irish rebels, but were speedily made prisoners.

83. *When did the Irish Rebellion take place?*—It broke out in 1798, just before the landing of the French, and was soon extinguished.

84. *What was the cause of this rebellion?*—It was a hopelessness in procuring redress of a variety of serious national grievances by lawful and constitutional means. Though defeated, the rebellion caused the government to turn attention to Ireland, with a view to a union with Great Britain.

85. *When did the Union with Ireland take place?*—It took place on the 1st January 1801; by this event the Irish parliament was abolished, and the Irish sent representatives to the parliament at Westminster, which was now called the IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT.

86. *Was the Union popular in Ireland?*—No; it was almost universally opposed; but the measure, as in the case of

Scotland, was carried by the liberal administration of bribes and government patronage among the native legislators. By this union, however, Ireland obtained many important commercial and social benefits.

87. *Was any change made on the British flag at the Union with Ireland?*—Yes; certain white streaks were blended—in the language of Heraldry, *fimbriated*—with the crosses of St George and St Andrew. So altered, the Union Jack became as we now see it.

88. *What were the Berlin and Milan Decrees?*—They were Decrees issued by Napoleon, the first in 1806, and the second in 1807, interdicting any commerce with England, and declaring the British Islands in a state of blockade—the object of the decrees being to damage the trade of Great Britain.

89. *What were the 'Orders in Council'?*—They were decrees or orders issued by the British Privy Council in 1807, as reprisals for Napoleon's Berlin and Milan Decrees. By these 'orders,' all trade was interdicted with ports occupied by the French.

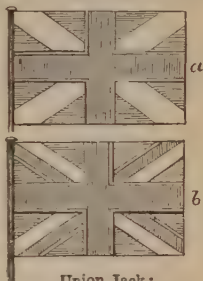
90. *What was the 'Right of Search'?*—It was a right assumed by Great Britain to search the ships of the United States for sailors who were British subjects. The exercise of this right, along with other grounds of complaint, caused the United States to declare war against Great Britain, June 1812.

91. *How long did this American war last?*—It lasted until December 1814, and increased the troubles arising out of the war in the Peninsula.

92. *What was the Peninsular War?*—It was a part of the great French war carried on in Spain, with a view to drive the French out of that country; it began in 1808, and terminated at the general peace in 1814.

93. *Who were the noted British commanders in the Peninsular War?*—Sir John Moore, and latterly Sir Arthur Wellesley, who was raised to the peerage under the title of Lord Wellington.

94. *What was the fate of Sir John Moore?*—He was killed at the battle of Corunna, January 16, 1809, and buried on the ramparts in his military cloak. He is chiefly memorable for his masterly retreat before a superior force.



Union Jack :
a, before, b, after, the union
with Ireland.

95. *What was the career of Lord Wellington?*—He gained a succession of brilliant victories in the Peninsula, and for his signal services was created Duke of Wellington. The greatest of his battles was that of Waterloo.

96. *When was the battle of Waterloo fought?*—It was fought on the 18th of June 1815; and was a final struggle of the British and their allies against Napoleon Bonaparte, Emperor of the French. The British forces under Wellington were completely victorious, and Napoleon was exiled to St Helena, where he died, 5th May 1821.



Wellington.

97. *How long did the Duke of Wellington survive?*—He lived a number of years after the restoration of peace, and was distinguished as a statesman; he died 1852, and was honoured with a public funeral, when his remains were deposited in St Paul's Cathedral.

98. *What were the effects of the great French war on England?*—Besides causing a great loss of life, embarrassing trade and commerce, and retarding social advancement, the war added six hundred millions to the national debt.

99. *Did the useful arts advance during the war?*—Yes; but very slowly, for the country was for years almost entirely occupied with military affairs.

100. *Mention some of the mechanical and other improvements during the progress of the war.*—The manufacture of paper by machinery was perfected in 1807; steam-navigation was introduced about 1812; printing machinery came into use in 1814; and in the same year lighting with gas was employed in the streets of London.

101. *What family had George III.?*—He had a large family of sons and daughters. His sons were, George Prince of Wales, Frederick Duke of York, William-Henry Duke of Clarence, Edward Duke of Kent, Ernest-Augustus Duke of Cumberland, Augustus-Frederick Duke of Sussex, and Adolphus-Frederick Duke of Cambridge.

102. *What was the Regency?*—It was the government under George Prince of Wales, who was appointed Prince Regent in 1811, in consequence of the aberration of intellect of the king. This regency lasted until the death of George III.

103. *What was the state of the nation under the Regency?*

—After the conclusion of the war, there was great national depression, and various political disturbances.

104. *Who was the Princess Charlotte?*—She was the daughter and only child of George Prince Regent, and was married to Prince Leopold of Saxe-Cobourg in 1816. To the inexpressible grief of the nation, the princess died in November 1817.

105. *When did George III. die?*—He died January 29, 1820, in his eighty-second year, after a long reign of nearly sixty years, and was succeeded by George Prince Regent under the title of George IV.

106. *What legal meliorations took place in the reign of George IV.?*—Certain harsh enactments, called the ‘Test and Corporation Acts,’ passed in 1673, excluding Dissenters and Roman Catholics from holding any civil or military offices. They were abolished in 1828, and the acts imposing various legal disabilities on Roman Catholics were repealed in 1829.

107. *When did George IV. die?*—He died 26th June 1830, and was succeeded by his next surviving brother, the Duke of Clarence, who ascended the throne as William IV.

108. *What were the Reform Bills?*—They were bills introduced into parliament between 1831 and 1832, for altering and extending the system of representation in parliament, by which large numbers of persons were to be admitted to the privilege of being electors. The first two bills were thrown out after great debating and partial success on the part of the Reformers, but the third passed in 1832. An additional bill was afterwards passed for reforming the municipal corporations.

109. *What was practically the effect of these Reforms?*—The effect was a considerable change in the political constitution of the country, by which power was in a certain degree transferred from the aristocracy to the middle classes.

110. *When was slavery abolished throughout the British possessions?*—The act for the abolition of slavery was passed 1833, when parliament voted the sum of £20,000,000 as compensation to the owners of slaves; all were made free on the 1st August 1834, excepting those in the East Indies, who were freed in 1838—since which time there has not been a slave in any part of the British dominions.

111. *When did Railways commence?*—They began in the reign of George IV., but were not properly established until the reign of King William, or from 1830 till 1837.

112. *When did King William die?*—He died June 20, 1837

when he was succeeded by his niece, Victoria, daughter of Edward Duke of Kent.

113. *When did Hanover cease to belong to British sovereigns?*—It was relinquished on the death of William IV., when, in virtue of the Salic law, it passed by inheritance to Ernest Duke of Cumberland, who accordingly became king of Hanover. Hanover, having taken up arms against Prussia during the Prusso-Austrian war of 1866, was incorporated with Prussia.

114. *What is the Salic Law?*—It is a law adopted in certain continental nations, by which females are excluded from being heirs to the throne. The term *salic* is of uncertain origin.

115. *Whom did Queen Victoria marry?*—Her Majesty married Prince Albert of Saxe-Cobourg, February 10, 1840; Prince Albert was afterwards styled the Prince Consort.

116. *What were the Corn Laws?*—They were certain statutory enactments for restraining the importation of foreign corn; these laws were of old date, but were confirmed and strengthened by an act of parliament, 1814.

117. *What was the professed object of the Corn Laws?*—It was to encourage the growth of corn in the United Kingdom, and so sustain the agriculture of the country. Other reasons were assigned, but the practical effect of all the laws on the subject was to raise the price of bread.



Queen Victoria.

118. *What was the Anti-corn-law League?*—It was an association in England, founded in 1838, to agitate for a repeal of the corn laws, on the ground that they were injurious to public and private interests. After much discussion, they were repealed by Sir Robert Peel, an eminent statesman, 1846.

119. *Who was Richard Cobden?*—He was a leading member of the Anti-corn-law League, and member of parliament, who did signal service by promoting free-trade, and effecting a beneficial treaty of commerce with France. He died in 1865.

120. *What was the Crimean War?*—It was a war by the British and French against Russia, in order to check the encroachments of that power on Turkey. It was called Crimean, from being chiefly carried on in the Crimea, a peninsula north of the Black Sea. The war ended in 1856, by Russia agreeing to respect the independence of Turkey.

121. *Under what form of government did British India rise to importance?*—Under the government of a great commercial association, called the East India Company, the administration being conducted by directors in London.

122. *When was the East India Company constituted?*—It was constituted by royal charter, 1600; but it had many subsequent charters extending its powers, which embraced the employment of an army composed chiefly of *Sepoys* or natives of India.

123. *How did the Company extend its dominion over India?*—From a small beginning at Calcutta, it extended its territories by gifts from, and wars against, native princes; in the course of which wars, several Englishmen greatly distinguished themselves.

124. *Mention some of the persons who rose to note by their services in India.*—Clive, Warren Hastings, Sir Arthur Wellesley, Sir Charles Napier, Sir Colin Campbell, and Sir Hugh Rose.

125. *What was the Indian Revolt?*—It was a wide-spread rebellion which broke out in India in 1857 against the British authority; the rebels being chiefly *Sepoys*, or native soldiers in the pay of government. This revolt was suppressed by a strong military force under Sir Colin Campbell in 1858.

126. *When did the government of the East India Company terminate?*—It came to a close November 1, 1858, when the direct sovereignty of the Queen was substituted for the rule of the Company—this change having taken place partly on account of the revolt in India, 1857.

127. *When did the Prince Consort die?*—He died, to the grief of the whole nation, December 14, 1861.

128. *Who is the Heir-apparent to the throne?*—Albert-Edward Prince of Wales, born 9th November 1841, who married the Princess Alexandra of Denmark, 10th March 1863.

129. *What was the Abyssinian Expedition?*—It was an army, under the command of Sir R. Napier (afterwards Lord Napier), sent in 1867 to deliver certain British subjects, who had been kept in captivity by Theodore, king of Abyssinia. His stronghold, Magdala, was taken by storm on 13th April 1868, the prisoners having previously been given up. After the siege, the dead body of Theodore was found on the field.

130. *When was the Irish Church disestablished?*—The Irish Church was disestablished on January 1, 1871.

131. *What was the Ashantee War?*—It was a war against Coffee Calcalli, king of Ashantee, who had overrun the terri-

tories of our allies, the Fantees. After his capital, Coomassie, was burned, a treaty was concluded.

132. *What happened with regard to Ireland in 1881?*—In consequence of the agitation promoted by the Land League, discontent had reached a great height amongst the Irish tenant-farmers; but an Irish Land Bill was passed in that year, conferring important privileges upon them.

133. *What is the Annual Income of the United Kingdom?*—It is upwards of £80,000,000; from which, after deducting payment of interest on the National Debt, there is a balance of about £50,000,000, for all the expenses of government.

134. *What is now the amount of the National Debt?*—It amounts to about £677,000,000, necessitating the payment of an annual interest of about £25,900,000.

135. *Mention some particulars shewing the progress of the nation since the Union of England and Scotland in 1707:*

1. The population of England and Wales has risen from little more than 5,000,000 to 29,000,000.

2. The population of Scotland has risen from under 1,000,000 to upwards of 4,000,000.

3. The population of London and its suburbs has risen from 500,000 to upwards of 5,000,000.

4. Scotland has made enormous advances in wealth: in 1674, the valued rent was £319,281, while the amount of real property assessed for income-tax in 1891 was upwards of £19,000,000; and the population of Glasgow has risen from 13,000 to over 600,000.

5. Commercial and manufacturing industries have made immense progress; exports from Great Britain and Ireland have risen to over £300,000,000 annually.

136. *To what is the great prosperity of the United Kingdom owing?*—Among other noted causes are:

1. A settled constitutional government, free of any contentions respecting the right to the crown.

2. Universal respect for the law, which is everywhere administered with good-temper and uprightness.

3. Numerous and most important mechanical improvements, particularly the introduction of steam-power.

4. The freedom enjoyed by all in their daily pursuits—a degree of freedom which cannot possibly exist in countries where the people are disposed to conspire against public authority, or break into disorder.

5. The prevalence of religious instruction and general education; also, the very general diffusion of literature and a taste for reading.

Modern Continental History.

France until 1560.

1. *Who was St Louis?*—He was Louis IX. of France, who was distinguished for his piety and heroism; he perished in one of the Crusades, 1270, and was afterwards canonised by the pope—hence the designation St Louis.

2. *When were the States General first assembled in France?*—The States General (*Etats Généraux*) were first assembled in 1302 by Philippe IV., at which meeting the *tiers état*, or burgher class, appeared with the nobles and clergy.

3. *Was the establishment of free cities successful in France?*—No; the wealthy and free cities of France and the Netherlands excited the alarm of the feudal nobility, who crushed them with overpowering forces in the 14th century.

4. *When were the English expelled from France?*—They were expelled from all parts except Calais in 1453, in the reign of Henry VI. of England and Charles VII. of France, their expulsion being mainly due to Joan of Arc.

5. *Who was Joan of Arc?*—She was an illiterate French maiden of the village of Domremy, on the borders of Lorraine, who, in a fit of devout enthusiasm, conceived the idea of freeing the country from the English. She is sometimes called the 'Maid of Orleans.'

6. *What measures did Joan of Arc adopt?*—Through favour of Charles VII., whom she persuaded to enter into her designs, she so excited the French by her patriotic exhortations, that they overcame the enemy in several encounters.

7. *What was the fate of Joan of Arc?*—She was captured by the English, and condemned to death as a sorceress; this intrepid young woman was cruelly burned at the stake, 1431. The English were forced to relinquish all their possessions, except Calais, within 20 years afterwards.

8. *How was modern France consolidated?*—By the expulsion of the English, and the absorption of various provinces, which were once held as fiefs of the sovereign; by which means a powerful kingdom or empire has been constructed out of many detached or ill-combined parts.

9. *Who was Louis XI.?*—He was son of Charles VII., and was noted for his craftiness and superstition, but also for

effecting many useful improvements; he had some strange contentions with the famed Duke of Burgundy.

10. *Who was the famed Duke of Burgundy?*—He was Charles, usually called Charles the Bold, who held his dukedom as a fief of the French crown; but in reality Charles acted very much as an independent sovereign, lived in great state at Dijon, and on one occasion, when Louis XI. visited Péronne, had the audacity to imprison him, 1468. A few years later, 1477, on the death of Charles, without male issue, Burgundy was incorporated with France.



LOUIS XI.

11. *How did Louis XI. acquire the mastery of his dominions?*—By the aid of a regular standing army, which was begun to be formed in the reign of his father, Charles VII.—the first instance of a regular hired force in Europe.

12. *What was Louis XI. styled?*—He was the first king of France who was styled 'His most Christian Majesty.' Louis XI. died in 1483, and was succeeded by his son, Charles VIII.

13. *Who succeeded Charles VIII.?*—Louis XII., who was noted for his many excellent qualities, and gained the title of 'father of his people.'

14. *Whom did Louis XII. marry?*—He married, first, Anne of Brittany, by which event that duchy was united to the crown of France. By Anne, he had a daughter, who was married to Francis, Count of Angoulême, who ascended the throne as Francis I. (*François Premier*). Second, Louis married Mary, daughter of Henry VII. of England. Louis XII. died 1515.

15. *What was the character of Francis I.?*—He was one of the most eminent sovereigns of France, distinguished for his dashing bravery, his taste, and patronage of arts and literature; but his cruelties have left a stain on his memory. He was contemporary with Henry VIII. of England.

16. *What was the 'Field of the Cloth of Gold'?*—That was the name given to an open field near Calais, where, in 1520, Francis I. and Henry VIII. held an interview, which, with various sports, lasted eighteen days. The name was given on account of the splendour of the two courts on the occasion.

17. *Who was the Chevalier Bayard?*—He was a French knight, eminent for his bravery, love of justice, and general

integrity of character. Bayard flourished in the reign of Francis I., and was slain by an arrow, 1524. In literature, he is called the knight '*sans peur et sans reproche*.'

18. *What was the battle of Pavia?*—It was a battle fought by the French under Francis I. at Pavia, in Lombardy, against



Field of the Cloth of Gold.

the forces of the Emperor Charles V., 1525. In this battle the French were defeated, and their king taken prisoner. On this occasion, in a letter to his mother, Francis wrote the often-quoted words: 'All is lost but honour.'

19. *What was the subsequent career of Francis I.?*—He was set at liberty, resumed his government, and died 1547.

20. *Who succeeded Francis I.?*—His son Henry II., who was succeeded by his son, Francis II., a youth who was married to Mary Queen of Scots, but died after a short reign of two years, 1560.

21. *Who were the Dukes of Guise?*—They were a noted family in France during the 15th and 16th centuries, more particularly in the reign of Francis II. One of them took Calais from the English.

22. *When was Calais taken from the English?*—It was captured by Francis, second Duke of Guise, 1558. This duke was uncle of Mary Queen of Scots, and it was through his influence that she was married to the king of France.

23. *How long was Calais in the hands of the English?*—From 1347 to 1558, or upwards of 200 years; the principal church survives as a relic of the English occupation.

24. *Who succeeded Francis II.?*—His brother, Charles IX. ; but being a minor, his government was administered by his mother, Catharine de' Medici, a woman of an imperious character.

Austria and Switzerland.

25. *To what does Austria trace its national importance?*—To the consolidation of various provinces on the accession of the Hapsburg dynasty, towards the end of the 13th century.

26. *What was the Hapsburg Dynasty?*—It was a family of note which had long occupied the castle of Hapsburg, or Habsburg, near Brugg, on the left bank of the Aar, Switzerland. One of the princes of this ancient house, Rudolph, who was elected Emperor of Germany, acquired the duchy of Austria and other possessions, to which his son, Albrecht I., succeeded, 1291, with whom properly begins the history of Austria.

27. *Who were the Magyars?*—They were the early inhabitants of Hungary, and are believed to have been of Scythian origin ; the Hungarians still call themselves Magyars.

28. *When did Hungary attain to the dignity of a kingdom?*—In the year 1000 ; the first king was Stephen I., who was crowned with a crown sent to him by Pope Sylvester II.

29. *Were the Hungarians troubled with the Turks?*—Yes ; the Turks were for ages a trouble to Hungary, which, under the brave Magyars, with their splendid cavalry, served as a species of bulwark against the Turks—in this respect emulating the Poles.

30. *Who was Matthias Corvinus?*—He was king of Hungary at the middle of the 15th century, and eminent for his valour, love of justice, learning, and the various improvements he effected in the country ; in 1467, he founded the university of Presburg.

31. *Who was Ferdinand I. of Austria?*—He was brother of the Emperor Charles V., and ultimately inherited from him his German possessions.

32. *Whom did Ferdinand I. marry?*—He married the daughter of Louis II., king of Hungary and Bohemia, on whose death, 1526, he claimed these possessions, to which, after some national troubles, he succeeded. The connection of Austria with Hungary and Bohemia, therefore, dates from 1526.

33. *How did Hungary happen to be attached to Bohemia?*—Ladislaus, the father of Louis II., was king of Bohemia.

and while retaining that dignity, was elected king of Hungary, to which country he removed.

34. *Was Hungary thoroughly merged in the Archduchy of Austria?*—No; the Austrian rulers enjoyed the Hungarian crown as a thing separate from Austria, and by various successors of Ferdinand I., including the famed Maria-Theresa, the people of Hungary were insured the continuance of their separate national institutions.

35. *What was the condition of Switzerland in the middle ages?*—Called Helvetia by the Romans, Switzerland, about 700 years ago, was possessed by various hereditary dukes, counts, and other nobles, from whom the people wrested their liberty, and were able to form free communities, called cantons.

36. *How did Albrecht I. treat the Swiss?*—As emperor of Germany, he abused his power over the Swiss, some of whose free towns he wished to incorporate with his family possessions. Resisting these efforts, the Swiss formed a confederation of cantons, and commenced a memorable struggle for civil liberty.

37. *Who was William Tell?*—He was a young Swiss peasant of the Canton of Uri, who intrepidly resisted the oppressive measures of Gessler, an Austrian governor, whom Albrecht had installed in the castle of Brunegg, to subdue the adjoining district.

38. *What is the legend of Tell and the Apple?*—It is said that Tell, having been taken prisoner by Gessler, was promised his liberty if he could, with an arrow from a bow, hit an apple placed on the head of his son. This feat he accomplished in the market-place of Altorf, 1307. Gessler, incensed, did not keep his promise; but Tell afterwards escaped, and headed a formidable insurrection against the Austrian authority. The legend of Tell and the Apple rests on no good authority, but is generally related.

39. *What was the battle of Morgarten?*—It was a victory gained by the confederate Swiss over the forces of Leopold of Austria (a successor of Albrecht), 1315.

40. *What was the battle of Sempach?*—The battle of Sempach was the second great victory gained by the Swiss over the Austrians, and was fought in 1336.

41. *What is the legend concerning Arnold of Winkelried?*—Arnold, it is said, was a Swiss knight of Unterwalden, who, by an extraordinary act of patriotism, at the sacrifice of his own life, secured the victory of Sempach to his countrymen.

42. *Relate this remarkable feat.*—The Austrians, advancing in a close column, with their lances pointed, the Swiss seemed likely to be borne down, when Arnold, uttering the cry: ‘Protect my wife and children, and I will open a path to freedom,’ rushed forward, and gathered several lances in his arms and bosom; whereupon the Swiss took advantage of the gap, and broke the phalanx.

43. *By what English poet has this noble act of devotion been commemorated?*—Wordsworth has the following lines on the subject:

‘He of battle-martyrs chief!
Who, to recall his daunted peers,
For victory shaped an open space,
By gath’ring in a wide embrace,
Into his single heart, a sheaf
Of fatal Austrian spears.’

44. *What was the battle of Grandson?*—It was a victory gained by the confederate Swiss over the forces of Charles the Bold of Burgundy, near Grandson, on the Lake of Neufchatel, 1476.

45. *What was the battle of Morat?*—The battle of Morat (or Murten) was a second victory of the Swiss over the Burgundians. It was fought near the town and lake of Morat shortly after the victory of Grandson, 1476. The loss of the Burgundians was immense, and the bones of the slain lay in heaps on the ground for more than 300 years.

46. *What English poet refers to these ghastly trophies?*—Lord Byron, in *Childe Harold*, has the following lines on the field of Morat:

‘There is a spot should not be pass’d in vain—
Morat! the proud, the patriot field! where man
May gaze on ghastly trophies of the slain,
Nor blush for those who conquered on that plain.
Here Burgundy bequeathed his tombless host,
A bony heap through ages to remain;
Themselves the monument.’

47. *When was Charles the Bold killed?*—He was killed at the siege of Nancy, in Lorraine, 1477; from about which time the Swiss were long freed from foreign intrusion.

48. *What children did Charles the Bold leave?*—He left a daughter, Maria, who from him inherited the Netherlands. Maria married Maximilian I. of Austria, by which means the Netherlands became an Austrian possession, and was assigned to Philip, son of Maximilian and Maria.

49. *Whom did Philip marry?*—He married Joanna, daughter

of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, and their son Charles inherited Austria, Spain, the Netherlands, and some other countries; to add to his power, he was elected Emperor of Germany, 1519.

50. *By what title is Charles best known?*—He is best known in history as the Emperor Charles V.; under him the House of Hapsburg attained to a commanding influence in European affairs. Charles was the contemporary and rival of Henry VIII. of England and Francis I. of France.

The Reformation.

51. *What was the Reformation?*—It was a great change in religious doctrine and practice as maintained by the Church of Rome, and was in a great degree founded on an examination of the Scriptures.

52. *When did the Reformation take place?*—After various abortive efforts by the Waldenses, Albigenses, the Hussites, and others, the Reformation took place in Germany in the early part of the 16th century, whence with less or more success it spread to certain countries on the Continent, also to England and Scotland.

53. *What was thought of the Reformation by the Pope and members of the Church of Rome?*—It was deemed a great schism or heresy, which it was proper to suppress by the arm of the civil power. The Albigenses and some others, who aimed at a Reformation, were effectually suppressed.

54. *Who were the Waldenses?*—They were a numerous sect in the south of France, taking their name from their founder, Peter Waldus, a citizen of Lyon, about 1170. The Waldenses underwent many persecutions, and were chased from country to country; finally they settled in Piedmont, where the sect still exists, and are generally known as 'the Vaudois.'

55. *Who were the Albigenses?*—Like the Waldenses, they were a numerous sect in the south of France, who, about 1250, dissented from the doctrines and usages of the Church of Rome, and after a time were either extirpated or dispersed. The name Albigenses was taken from Albi, capital of Languedoc, where the sect first came into notice.

56. *Who was John Huss?*—He was a preacher at Prague, in Bohemia, who, becoming acquainted with the writings of Wickliffe, adopted his doctrines. On a charge of heresy, he

was tried and condemned at Constance, and publicly burned at the stake, 1415.

57. *Who was Jerome of Prague?*—He was a companion of Huss, who, like him, adopted Wickliffe's doctrines, and in like manner was condemned and burned at the stake at Constance, 1416.

58. *Who were the Huguenots?*—They were a numerous body in France, embracing many distinguished nobles, who professed Reformed doctrines. The origin of the term Huguenot is unknown.

59. *Were the Huguenots persecuted?*—Yes; many of them were condemned and burned at the stake in the reign of Francis I., and under his grandson, Charles IX., they were exposed to a series of cruel persecutions.

60. *What was the Massacre of St Bartholomew?*—It was a massacre of Huguenots in Paris on the night of St Bartholomew, between the 24th and 25th of August 1572. The slaughter extended to the provinces, and it is reckoned that altogether 30,000 persons were murdered. This appalling event occurred during the minority of Charles IX., and on his mother, Catharine de' Medici, rests the stigma of ordering the massacre.

61. *Who was Coligni?*—Gaspard de Coligni, Admiral of France, was head of the Huguenot party, and was basely murdered in the massacre of St Bartholomew, on the 24th August 1572.

62. *Who was Martin Luther?*—He was the great apostle of the Reformation in Germany.

63. *Mention some facts concerning Luther.*—He was a native of Saxony, and began life as a priest in the Church of Rome; but being shocked with the profligate sale of Indulgences by a monk named Tetzel, who acted under a commission from Pope Leo X., he at length threw off his allegiance to the church, and began to preach certain Reformed doctrines.



Martin Luther.

64. *What prince was favourable to Luther?*—Frederick, elector of Saxony, under whose auspices he propagated his opinions and made converts, 1517 to 1521.

65. *What was the Diet of Worms?*—It was an assembly of

princes, temporal and spiritual, of the German Empire, April 17, 1521, at Worms, a city on the Rhine, to which Luther was summoned to retract his errors. Luther attended, but would not retract, and having a safe-conduct, was suffered to depart. The president of this famed assembly was the Emperor Charles V.

66. *Who was Melancthon?*—He was a person of a gentle and amiable character, a professor of Greek in the university of Wittenberg; having adopted the opinions of Luther, he was serviceable in propagating them among his countrymen. His real name was Schwarzerd—literally 'Black Earth,' which became *Melancthon*, translated into Greek. It was at one time customary for scholars to translate their surnames into Greek or Latin.

67. *How did the term Protestant originate?*—A diet of the German Empire convoked at Spires, 1529, issued a decree confirming an edict published at Worms against Luther, and prohibiting any further innovations in religion. Certain princes of the empire having solemnly protested against this decree, received the name *Protestants*, and the appellation has since been given generally to all who dissent from the Church of Rome.

68. *What was the Confession of Augsburg?*—It was a system of Protestant opinions composed by Melancthon, and presented to a diet of the German empire at Augsburg, 1530. This Confession of Augsburg continues to be the creed of the Lutheran church in Germany.

69. *What was the ultimate career of Luther?*—He threw off his monastic dress, 1524, and married, 1525. Under the protection of several German princes, he continued to preach the Reformed doctrines, until his death, 1546. Luther was a person of vigorous mind, fearless in asserting what he believed to be the truth, and genial in his social relations.

70. *Who was Zwingli?*—Zwingli or Zuinglius, was a priest of the canton of Glarus, in Switzerland, who, without any knowledge of Luther, preached, like him, against the sale of Indulgences, 1517—1518, and finally headed a church-reform among the Swiss.

71. *In what did the Lutheran differ from the Zwinglian Reformation?*—While Luther retained some of the usages of the Church of Rome, including that of an episcopal hierarchy, Zwingli carried his views much further, and originated a church of a democratic or Presbyterian character.

72. *Who was Calvin?* John Calvin, or Cauvin, was a

Frenchman, born in Picardy, 1509; in the course of his studies, he embraced the principles of the Reformation, which he began to preach. In 1535, Calvin issued his famous *Institutes of the Christian Religion*. After a troublous career as a preacher and spiritual and civil director at Geneva, he died 1564. Calvin adhered to the Zwinglian form of the Reformation, which, under some modification, was followed by Knox, and has been embraced in Scotland.



John Calvin.

73. *Did the early Reformers inculcate toleration?*—No; as already explained, freedom of opinion was not allowed even by those who had themselves been the victims of persecution. Calvin, for example, persecuted Servetus.

74. *Who was Servetus?*—He was a person who wrote some speculative treatises that were considered heretical. On a charge of this kind, he was tried at Geneva, and condemned to be burned at the stake, 1553—a sentence which was put in execution; the death was approved of by Calvin, and Calvin's conduct on the occasion was justified by Melancthon. The crime remains a mournful and scandalous blot on the history of the Reformation.

75. *Who was Beza?*—He was, next to Calvin, the most energetic and influential of the Genevese reformers. He often preached in France, and presided over the synods of French reformers. He died in 1605.

76. *Mention a remarkable fact concerning the Reformation.*—The most noticeable fact is, that the Reformation spread to, and took root in, only certain countries, to which it has ever since been mainly confined. Quenched in France, Spain, Italy, and several of the German states, no fresh outburst of zeal has caused its revival on a scale of national importance. That the Reformation should have been confined chiefly to the early part of the 16th century, is thought to be a curious historical phenomenon.

77. *How was the Reformation quenched in certain countries?*—By persecution and military outrage; it was seriously retarded by the 'Thirty Years' War.'

78. *What was the 'Thirty Years' War?'*—It was a war in Continental Europe, extending from 1618 till 1648, and though

not nominally so, was in effect a war between Roman Catholic and Protestant powers. The chief brunt of this frightful war fell on various German states, particularly Bohemia, Saxony, and the Palatinate.

79. *What was the Palatinate?*—It was a small principality on the Rhine, of which Heidelberg was the capital. Its prince, or elector-palatine, Frederick, who married Elizabeth, daughter of James I. of England, was, as a Protestant, elected king of Bohemia, 1619.

80. *Who were the contending parties in the Thirty Years' War?*—The elector-palatine, supported by the Bohemians, by a large section of the Protestants of Germany, and by British and Dutch auxiliaries—all in the Protestant interest. Their antagonists were the Emperor of Germany, and the German Roman Catholic princes.

81. *What was the battle of Prague?*—It was a victory gained by the Roman Catholic forces over the Protestants at Prague, 1620; the result being the expulsion of Frederick and Elizabeth from Bohemia.

82. *Who were Tilly and Wallenstein?*—Count Tilly and the still more famous Wallenstein, Duke of Friedland, were generals in the Roman Catholic interest in the Thirty Years' War.

83. *Who was Gustavus Adolphus?*—He was king of Sweden, and known as the 'Lion of the North.' He undertook the championship of German Protestantism, 1630; and thousands from England, Scotland, and the Netherlands, joined his standard. Under him, the Protestants gained many triumphs, and Tilly was slain in battle. Gustavus was killed at the battle of Lutzen, 1632, which was a great blow to the Protestant cause.

84. *How did the Thirty Years' War terminate?*—It subsided into a struggle between the emperor of Germany and the king of France, and was specially noted by the brilliant victories, but also frightful cruelties, of Marshal Turenne, the French general.

85. *What was the 'Peace of Westphalia?'*—It was the treaty of peace signed at Munster, in Westphalia, 1648, putting an end to the Thirty Years' War.

France Resumed.

86. *Who succeeded Charles IX.?*—He was succeeded by his brother Henry III., at whose decease, 1589, the House of Valois became extinct in the male line.

87. *Who was Henry IV.?*—Henry IV. (Henri Quatre) was the son of Antoine de Bourbon, and a daughter of the king of Navarre. Henry inherited the kingdom of Navarre from his mother, and married Margaret of Valois, sister of Charles IX.; as nearest male heir, he was raised to the throne of France, and became the first monarch of the House of Bourbon.

88. *How was Henry IV. educated?*—He was reared as a Protestant by his mother, but afterwards, as a measure of national pacification, he professed himself a Roman Catholic.

89. *Who was Sully?*—De Rosny, afterwards Duke of Sully, was minister to Henry IV., and a man eminent for his statesmanship and literary tastes. Under his administration great public improvements were effected throughout France. Sully has left agreeable memoirs of his time.



Henry IV.

90. *What was the Edict of Nantes?*—It was a decree of Henry IV. published at Nantes, 1598, which secured freedom of religion to the Protestant portion of his subjects. By this famous edict, the Huguenots were allowed to celebrate worship wherever Protestant communities existed, to build churches (except in Paris), and to maintain colleges of learning. In virtue of these arrangements, the Huguenots for a time enjoyed a legal status in France, and had numerous churches.

91. *What was the great stronghold of the Huguenots?*—Rochelle, a fortified city on the sea-shore, about 100 miles north-west of Bordeaux.

92. *Was Henry IV. popular?*—Exceedingly so; by the nation generally he was much esteemed, and is renowned in French history as 'Henry the Great.' He, however, incurred the enmity of the Jesuits and others for his liberal dealings with the Huguenots, and was assassinated by a wretched fanatic named Ravallac, 1610.

93. *Who succeeded Henry IV.?*—He was succeeded by his son, Louis XIII., whose sister, Henrietta, was married to Charles I. of England.

94. *Who was Richelieu?*—Richelieu, a man of noble birth, was a priest and cardinal, and one of the most noted statesmen of France. Rising by his great abilities to be minister

of Louis XIII., he vastly added to the imposing lustre of the crown, but inflicted corresponding damage on the state.

95. *Briefly explain Richelieu's policy.*—It was his primary aim to overthrow the privileges and civil importance of the nobles. This he effected not only by his public measures, but by the insidious plan of attracting all aristocratic families to Paris, in order to ruin them by extravagance, and deprive the rural districts of their presence.



Cardinal Richelieu.

96. *How did Richelieu treat the Huguenots?*—Perceiving in them a power dangerous to the despotic character of the monarchy, he assailed their privileges, and laid siege to their stronghold of Rochelle.

97. *How did the siege of Rochelle terminate?*—After a siege of two years, during which the garrison was assisted by England, Rochelle was forced to capitulate, through famine, 1629.

98. *In what sense was Richelieu opposed to Protestantism?*—He opposed it mainly because it was antagonistic, as he thought, to the unity, and therefore the grandeur of the French monarchy, which he seemed almost to worship; in Germany and in Great Britain, he secretly helped the Protestant cause, when by doing so he in any way weakened the opponents of France.

99. *Was Richelieu friendly to the arts?*—Yes; he was a great patron of learning and the arts, so far as they could exalt the glory of France. Two of his memorable acts consisted in the establishment of the Jardin des Plantes, and the French Academy, 1635, a society which remains one of the most select and learned bodies in Europe.

100. *When did Richelieu die?*—He died 1642. A street in Paris, in which was his palace, is called, from him, the *Rue Richelieu*.

101. *When did Louis XIII. die?*—He died in 1643, a few months after his great minister Richelieu (whom he never liked, but could not do without). He left two sons, Louis and Philippe.

102. *Who was Louis XIV.*—He was the eldest son of Louis XIII., and was born 1638. His brother, Philippe, born in

1640, was created Duke of Orleans, and from him the present Orleans family is descended.

103. *Who was Mazarin?*—He was a priest and cardinal, who rose into note on the death of Richelieu, and acted as minister during the minority of Louis XIV. He continued Richelieu's policy, and is scarcely less renowned as a statesman.

104. *What was the 'Parliament of Paris?'* It was an ancient institution, with civil and criminal jurisdiction, resembling a court of law, and was composed of secular and spiritual members. Its authority extended over the half of France.

105. *What special privilege had the Parliament of Paris?*—Its most valued privilege was that of considering and registering edicts of the sovereign, which, when registered, had the efficacy of legislative measures.

106. *Were there other parliaments?*—Yes; there were several provincial parliaments possessing a jurisdiction similar to that of Paris.

107. *How did Mazarin come into collision with the Parliament of Paris?*—He tried to make it register all royal edicts irrespective of their oppressive character, whereupon the members resisted, and a strong party of nobles and others broke into rebellion.

108. *What were the Wars of the Fronde?*—They were civil wars in France during the minority of Louis XIV., caused by the oppressive measures of Cardinal Mazarin. The first outbreak took place in 1648.

109. *What is the origin of the term Fronde?*—In French, *Fronde* signifies a sling, and *Frondeur*, a slinger. *Frondeur*, however, is popularly applied to any one who rails at, or throws out imputations on government. According to these latter significations, the wars of the Fronde or *Frondeurs* meant the 'Wars of the Railers.'

110. *Who were the leading members of the Fronde?*—Marshal Turenne, the Prince of Condé, and Cardinal de Retz, also many ladies of distinction; all professed loyalty to the crown, but a determination to overthrow Mazarin.

111. *Who was the Prince of Condé?*—He was an eminent member of the House of Bourbon, who distinguished himself as a military commander in the reign of Louis XIV., and is known in history as the 'Great Condé'; he died 1686. The 'Great Condé' was great-grandson of Condé, a noted leader of the Huguenots.

112. *When did the Wars of the Fronde terminate?*—After about five years of civil war, the contending parties came to a

pacification in 1653. Mazarin was driven from power, but resumed his ministry, and died in 1661, from which time Louis XIV. exercised the government principally himself.

113. *What was the character of Louis XIV.?*—He was the most powerful of all the French monarchs, magnificent in his personal appearance, and had the address to render himself popular, while he assumed an authority beyond all law or precedent.

114. *What was a memorable phrase of Louis XIV.?*—In allusion to his exercise of absolute authority, he said: '*L'état, c'est moi*' ('I am the state').

115. *How did Louis XIV. deal with the Parliament of Paris?*—The parliament, shaken in its power by Mazarin, was now forced to register the decrees of the court, and, like every other body, obeyed the king without reservation.

116. *Did Louis XIV. rule with discretion?*—He had able ministers, who in general managed his affairs with much skill, but his wars exhausted the nation, which he helped to demoralise by his profligacy.

117. *What were 'Lettres de Cachet'?*—Lettres de Cachet, or Sealed Letters, were decrees making known the royal will and pleasure, and were employed as warrants for secretly arresting individuals, and confining them in the Bastile, a fortified prison in Paris. Nine thousand lettres de cachet were issued during the reign of Louis XIV.

118. *What was the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes?*—It was a decree of Louis XIV., issued in 1685, revoking the celebrated Edict of Nantes of Henry IV., which gave protection to the Protestants in France.

119. *What ensued from the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes?*—There ensued a bloody persecution of the Protestants in France, many of whom fled to other countries, which they enriched by their industry and their skill in the arts.

120. *Did any of these French families settle in the British islands?*—Yes; many settled in England, Scotland, and Ireland, where they were hospitably received, and where their descendants are now mixed with the general population. The arts of silk-weaving and dyeing in England were especially advanced by the immigration of these French Protestants.



Louis XIV.

121. *Who were the Camisards?*—They were Protestants who inhabited the Cevennes, a mountainous district in the south of France, and were exposed to persecution by the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes. Driven to desperation, they broke into a general insurrection, which was at length suppressed by military force.

122. *What was the origin of the term Camisard?*—It is thought to be derived from *camise*, a species of blouse or shirt which the insurgents wore over their dress.

123. *Who were the contemporaries in England of Louis XIV.?*—In consequence of his long reign, he had for contemporaries Charles I., Cromwell, Charles II., James II., William III., Queen Anne, and for a short time George I.

124. *What were the relations of Louis to these English contemporaries?*—With some he was friendly, but in the main and in the latter part of his reign, the English made strenuous efforts to restrain him from extending his continental dominions. His great military antagonists were William III. and Marlborough.

125. *How did Louis XIV. treat Charles II.?*—He reduced Charles II., who was his cousin, to a political subserviency by money bribes; in accepting which gifts, Charles shewed the utter meanness and baseness of his character.

126. *What was the transaction between Louis XIV. and Charles II. as respects Dunkirk?*—Dunkirk, a fortified town on the coast of French Flanders, which had been taken by Oliver Cromwell in 1658, was sold by Charles II. for a sum of money in 1662.

127. *What was the price paid for Dunkirk?*—It is said to have been £500,000; to the disgust of the people of England, Charles applied the money to his own private purposes.

128. *Who were the Port-Royalists?*—They were a body of learned men, theologians, connected with the convent of Port-Royal des Champs, near Versailles, who composed some valued educational treatises, and played an important part in the Jansenist controversy. The most noted of the Port-Royalists was Blaise Pascal.

129. *What was the Jansenist Controversy?*—It was a long-continued controversy in the Roman Catholic Church, chiefly respecting the doctrine of 'free grace.' Jansen, or Jansenius, a learned professor of theology at Louvain (about 1630), propagated views on the subject contrary to those of the Jesuits, and hence the controversy, known by his name,

which caused much excitement in France and some other continental countries.

130. *Who were the Jesuits?*—They were a religious order in the Church of Rome, constituting the ‘Society of Jesus,’ which was originated by Ignatius of Loyola, a Spaniard, and established by him in 1540. The society was learned, devout, and full of zeal for the church, but interfered so much in civil politics that it was at various times expelled from different countries as dangerous to the public interests.

131. *When were the Port-Royalists suppressed?*—Their establishment was suppressed in 1709, in the reign of Louis XIV., this measure being instigated by Madame de Maintenon, a favourer of the Jesuits, whom the king had privately married.

132. *What was the last great war in which Louis XIV. was concerned?*—It was the famous War of the ‘Spanish Succession,’ in which he secured Spain for his grandson, Philip V., the first of the Bourbon dynasty in Spain. Louis concluded peace by the Treaty of Utrecht, 1713.

133. *When did Louis XIV. die?*—He died on the 1st of September, 1715, after a long reign of 72 years.

134. *What is the name assigned to Louis in French annals?*—He is referred to as *Louis Quatorze, le Grand Monarque*. From the superb style of art during his long and brilliant reign, articles of taste fabricated during his era are said to be of the ‘Louis-Quatorze style.’

135. *Was the reign of Louis XIV. favourable to the rise of men of commanding abilities?*—Yes; his reign was the Augustan age of French literature, and, encouraged by him, several men rose to great distinction.

136. *Repeat the glowing description of the reign of Louis XIV. given by an eminent writer.*—‘Turenne and Luxembourg were his generals; Colbert, Louvois, Torcy, his statesmen; Vauban was his engineer; Perault constructed his palaces, which were adorned by Poussin and Lebrun; Le Notre laid out his gardens; Corneille and Racine wrote his tragedies, Molière his comedies; Boileau was his poet; Bossuet, Fénelon, Bourdaloue, and Massillon were his preachers. It is in this august assembly of men, whose fame can never die, that this monarch, whom they acknowledged as their patron and protector, presents himself to the admiration of posterity.’

137. *What was ‘the Dauphin?’*—It was the title of the eldest son or heir-apparent of the throne of France.

138. *How did the title ‘Dauphin’ originate?*—It was formerly the title of the lords of the province of Dauphiné. The last

of these dying childless, 1349, bequeathed his possessions to Charles, grandson of Philippe VI. of France, on condition that the heir-apparent to the throne should bear the honorary title of Dauphin ; which continued the practice until the title was abolished, 1830.

139. *Did the Dauphin survive Louis XIV.?*—No ; both the Dauphin and the eldest son of the Dauphin died, 1711, and the succession devolved on the great-grandson of the deceased monarch, who, as Louis XV., ascended the throne at five years of age, 1715.

140. *Who was the Regent Orleans?*—He was Philippe Duke of Orleans, who, as a relative of the royal family and first peer of France, conducted the government as regent during the minority of Louis XV.

141. *Who was 'Law of Lauriston?'*—He was John Law, son of a goldsmith in Edinburgh and proprietor of Lauriston, an estate situated a few miles from that city ; by his financial projects, he greatly injured France during the regency of Orleans.

142. *What was the 'Mississippi Scheme?'*—It was a joint-stock concern devised by the Scotch adventurer, Law of Lauriston ; it included plans for developing the resources of Louisiana, a French colony on the Mississippi ; also for trading with China and the East Indies, and therefore bore a resemblance to the famous 'South-sea Bubble,' about the same time in England.

143. *When was the Mississippi Scheme started?*—It was started in 1717, and, favoured by the Regent Orleans, it led to a ruinous speculation in shares, and creation of paper money. The scheme collapsed in 1720, and fearing the public indignation, Law made his escape from France. He died in poor circumstances at Venice, 1729.

144. *What was the character of Louis XV.?*—Without the ability of his great-grandfather, he was more profligate and wasteful ; his life presented a spectacle of the utmost sensuality, selfishness, and baseness. For a considerable time, he was under the influence of Madame de Pompadour.

145. *Who was Damiens?*—He was a person who attempted to assassinate Louis XV. by stabbing him, 1757. He was seized, and punished with the most horrible tortures : his hand was burned off ; his body dragged about by horses ; and into his numerous wounds were poured molten lead, resin, oil, and sealing-wax till he died—a cruelty reflecting discredit on the administration of justice at the period.

146. *When did France capture Corsica?*—In 1768, when the Corsicans, who had been endeavouring to make themselves independent of Genoa, were forced to surrender to the French.

147. *Who was General Paoli?*—He was a distinguished Corsican officer, who unsuccessfully tried to prevent the French from taking possession of Corsica, 1768. He died in London, 1807.

148. *What valuable colony remained to France, after England had taken her principal American and East Indian possessions?*—The island of St Domingo, in the West Indies, which produced great quantities of sugar, and gave extensive employment to shipping.

149. *When were the Jesuits suppressed in France?*—They were suppressed by Louis XV., 1764, in order to please Madame de Pompadour, who had involved herself in a contest with the society.

150. *When did Louis XV. die?*—He died in 1774, and was succeeded by his grandson, Louis XVI., on whose head burst the cloud of misfortune that had for centuries been accumulating over France.

The Netherlands.

151. *What was the early history of the Netherlands?*—The country was occupied by the Batavi, Belgæ, Frisians, and other tribes, who were subdued by the Romans. In the middle ages, the Netherlands, like most parts of the Continent, belonged to feudal chiefs, from whom the people gradually wrested their freedom.

152. *How were the Dukes of Burgundy connected with the Netherlands?*—One of them acquired the county of Flanders by marriage, 1384.

153. *How was the Emperor Charles V. connected with Flanders?*—He inherited it from his grandmother, a daughter of the Duke of Burgundy. With this district as a beginning, Charles V. extended his dominions by conquest, and under him the Netherlands were consolidated and improved.

154. *What was the conclusion of the career of Charles V.?*—In 1555, he relinquished the government of the greater part of his vast dominions to his son, Philip II., and retiring into a convent in Spain, lived there until his death, 1558.

155. *What sort of a personage was Philip II.?*—He was a man

of cold and proud manners, who was very generally disliked. He married **Mary I.**, daughter of Henry VIII. of England, but he soon left the country, and was ever after engaged in continental affairs. During the reign of Elizabeth, he fitted out the famous Armada against Great Britain, which entirely failed to effect the purpose for which it was sent.

156. *What was the Inquisition?*—The Inquisition or ‘Holy Office,’ was a tribunal in the Roman Catholic Church, instituted in 1248, for the discovery, repression, and punishment of heresy, unbelief, and other offences against religion. It was established in various countries, but nowhere did it proceed with such rigour as in Italy and Spain.

157. *What was an ‘Auto da Fé?’*—It was a general burning at the stake of obdurate heretics by order of the Inquisition. ‘Auto da Fé,’ are the Spanish words for an ‘Act of Faith.’

158. *Was Philip II. a patron of the Inquisition?*—Yes; he took pleasure in its operations, and reverentially attended the burning of his subjects in Spain.

159. *Who was the Duke of Alva?*—He was a military commander employed by Philip II. to execute vengeance on the people of the Netherlands for having revolted under his cruel sway. With a large Spanish army, and possessing unlimited power, Alva inflicted the most appalling severities.

160. *Who were conspicuous in resisting the tyranny of Philip II.*—The Counts Egmont and Horn, two patriotic noblemen, who were condemned to death, and beheaded at Brussels, 1568; also the Prince of Orange, who was more fortunate in living to oppose Philip by force of arms.

161. *Who was the Prince of Orange?*—He was William I. of Nassau, heir of the principality of Orange, in the south of France, and of large possessions in Germany and the Netherlands.

162. *How was William I. Prince of Orange designated?*—He was usually called William the Silent, from his sparing use of speech.

163. *Was William a Protestant?*—Not originally; but he became a Protestant from conviction, and willingly took part with the Protestants of the Netherlands.



William I.,
Prince of Orange.

164. *Who succeeded Alva as Spanish governor of the Netherlands?*—General Requesens, a man of calm and moderate temperament, but resolute in subduing the revolted Netherlands under the authority of Philip.

165. *What was the siege of Leyden?*—It was an exceedingly protracted siege by the Spaniards of the city of Leyden, during which there were great sufferings from famine. The siege, which took place in 1574, was raised by the Prince of Orange, who broke down the dikes and flooded the country. By this extraordinary expedient, the Spaniards were forced to retire, and the inhabitants were supplied with food.

166. *What was the reward of the citizens of Leyden for their unparalleled sufferings?*—The Prince of Orange offered them a choice of exemption from taxation, or to have a university established in their city. They nobly preferred to have a university, which was inaugurated in 1575.

167. *Did the whole of the Netherlands incline to the Protestant interest?*—No: only the more northern provinces, including Holland and Zeeland, were Protestant, while the southern provinces remained Catholic.

168. *What were the United Provinces?*—They were the seven northern provinces of the Netherlands, united by William Prince of Orange; their independence was acknowledged by Spain in 1609; and their inhabitants are popularly known as the Dutch.

169. *What was the fate of the Prince of Orange?*—While holding the office of Stadtholder, or President of the United Provinces, he fell by the hand of an assassin at Delft, 1584. His great-grandson was William III., who married his cousin Mary, daughter of James II., and with her ascended the throne of Great Britain and Ireland at the Revolution of 1688.

170. *What was the history of the Southern Provinces of the Netherlands?*—They were for a time placed under the government of the Count of Anjou, a French nobleman; afterwards, they passed by marriage into the possession of Albert, Archduke of Austria, and Isabella, daughter of Philip II., and were known as the Austrian and the Spanish Netherlands, until the whole country was overrun by the French republican forces.

171. *Do the Modern Netherlands shew any traces of their past history?*—Yes; while the people of the northern provinces remain Protestant, and speak the Dutch language, those of the southern provinces, now known as Belgium, retain traces of the Spanish connection, speak French, and are still generally Roman Catholics.

Russia, Sweden, Poland, Denmark.

172. *When does the history of Russia assume a regular character?*—In the reign of Ivan I., from 1462 to 1505, when the country was freed from the Tartars, and the civilised usages of modern Europe introduced.

173. *What is the meaning of the term Czar?*—It is one of the titles of the Russian sovereigns. The word is supposed to be a corruption of *Cæsar*, the title of the Roman emperors. The wife of the czar is styled Czarina, and the elder son of the sovereign Czarovitch.

174. *What is remarkable in the succession to the throne of Russia?*—It is, that the reigning sovereign appoints his successor. The history of Russia is disfigured by assassinations and other violent measures to open the way to the throne.

175. *Who was Peter the Great?*—He was Peter I., born in 1672, who was surnamed 'Great,' in consequence of his distinguished abilities and the vast improvements which he effected during his reign.

176. *How did Peter the Great acquire a knowledge of the arts?*—By laying aside his dignity as czar, and working as an artisan in foreign countries. Setting out from his dominions in 1697, and assuming the name Peter Michaeloff, he wrought for some time as a ship-carpenter near Amsterdam, and afterwards near London. He returned to Moscow in 1698.



Peter the Great.

177. *Whom did Peter appoint to office?*—He employed numerous skilled foreigners—Scots, English, French, Germans, and others—to superintend various departments of affairs, to organise his army, and instruct his people; by which means he greatly extended the reputation and power of Russia.

178. *Who was Gustavus Vasa?*—He was Gustavus I., king of Sweden, which under him was freed from the Danes, and attained to national importance, 1525.

179. *How many other kings of Sweden were named Gustavus?*—Three—Gustavus II., III., and IV.; the most noted of whom was Gustavus II., generally known as Gustavus Adolphus, the 'Lion of the North, and Bulwark of the Protestant Faith,' who was killed at the battle of Lutzen, 1632.

180. *Who was Charles XII.?*—He was king of Sweden, born 1682, and succeeded his father, Charles XI., 1697, at which time Sweden was the most powerful nation in the north of Europe. Charles XII. was an extraordinary military genius, and, as some think, a kind of madman. His great opponent was Peter the Great, who decisively defeated him at Pultova, 1709.

181. *What was the fate of Charles XII.?*—He was killed at the siege of Friedrickshall, November 30, 1718, and by his death Sweden, exhausted by his wars, ceased to be numbered among the great powers of Europe.

182. *When was St Petersburg founded?*—It was founded in 1703 by Peter the Great, who personally superintended the construction of the city, which became henceforth the capital of Russia.

183. *Who were the Strelitzes?*—They were the life-guards of the czars, amounting sometimes to 40,000 men; as troublesome and dangerous to the state, the corps was dissolved by Peter the Great, and entirely dispersed, 1705.

184. *When did Peter the Great assume the title of Emperor?*—On the successful conclusion of his war with Sweden, 1721, when the territories of the empire were considerably extended.

185. *When did Peter the Great die?*—He died in 1725; at St Petersburg there is a celebrated equestrian monument of Peter, erected in 1782.

186. *Who succeeded Peter the Great?*—His wife, Catharine I., who reigned two years, immediately after whom there were several successors of no note.

187. *Who was Catharine II.?*—She was the greatest of the Russian sovereigns after Peter I.; she ascended the throne on the murder of her husband Peter III., to which she was accessory, 1762.

188. *What was the character of Catharine II.?*—Catharine was a woman of a comprehensive mind, but was unscrupulous in the means she employed to effect her designs, and possessed degrading tastes, that have left a stain on her memory. Like Peter the Great, Catharine encouraged the settlement of men skilled in the arts and sciences from foreign countries.

189. *What was Catharine II. called by her contemporaries?*—She was called the 'Semiramis of the North'—her vices, taste for magnificence, and warlike character having suggested a resemblance to Semiramis, the semi-fabulous queen of Assyria.

190. *Who was Potemkin?*—Prince Potemkin was for many years the favourite and trusted minister of Catharine, and

by his daring spirit carried on various aggressive wars for the purpose of extending the dominions of Russia.

191. *Who was Suwaroff?*—Count Suwaroff was a Russian military commander, who, in the reign of Catharine II., executed the ruthless purposes of Potemkin against Turkey and Poland.

192. *What was the storming of Ismael?*—It was the capture of Ismael, a fortified city of the Turks, in Bessarabia, on the north side of the Danube, December 22, 1790. It was taken and sacked by Suwaroff, who, to other atrocities on the occasion, caused a massacre of 40,000 of its inhabitants—men, women, and children indiscriminately.

193. *What was the laconic despatch sent by Suwaroff announcing this bloody triumph?*—It was ‘Glory to God and the Empress! Ismael is ours.’

194. *What were the results of the Russian successes over Turkey?*—The acquisition of territory, and a peace with Turkey, which left Catharine leisure to perfect her ambitious plans relative to Poland.

195. *What was the form of government in Poland?*—It was nominally a kingdom, but in reality it was an oligarchy, with an elective chief styled king. The nation consisted chiefly of but two classes, nobles and serfs; it was the assembly of nobles which elected the king.

196. *What was the ‘Liberum Veto?’*—It was a rule established by law in Poland during the reign of John Casimir, 1649, by which the vote of a single member of the diet or assembly could negative the votes of all the others. This ‘*liberum veto*’—about the worst law ever devised—in itself insured the ruin of Polish nationality.

197. *Who was John Sobieski?*—He was a distinguished Polish general, who was elected king of Poland, 1674, and rendered important services to Christendom by checking the encroachments of the Turks.

198. *When did the Turks besiege Vienna?*—Under the Grand Vizier, Kara Mustapha, a powerful army of Turks laid siege to Vienna in 1683, when the city was rescued by John Sobieski and his Polish cavalry. This splendid act of heroism has shed a lustre over the memory of Sobieski.

199. *When did John Sobieski die?*—He died 1696, when, by the flagitious body of nobles who overruled public affairs, the throne of Poland was sold to the highest bidder.

200. *When did the First Partition of Poland take place?*—It took place in 1772; the parties to this infamous act were

Russia, Prussia, and Austria ; but the government of Poland confirmed the treaty of partition. Of 82,000 square miles given away, Russia obtained one-half.

201. *When did the Second Partition of Poland take place?*—It took place in 1793, when Russia received 96,000 square miles, and Prussia rather more than a fourth of that extent. What remained of Poland was put under the protection of Russia.

202. *Who was Kosciusko?*—Thaddeus Kosciusko was a distinguished Polish patriot, who endeavoured to relieve his country from Russian oppression. After a noble but unavailing struggle against superior numbers, the Poles were overcome in an engagement, October 10, 1794, when Kosciusko was struck down, covered with wounds.

203. *What was the exclamation of Kosciusko in falling?*—It was '*Finis Poloniæ*' (It is the end of Poland).

204. *What British poet refers to the fall of Kosciusko?*—Thomas Campbell, in his *Pleasures of Hope*, has the lines :

'HOPE, for a season, bade the world farewell,
And Freedom shrieked—as KOSCIUSKO fell !'

205. *Did Kosciusko die on this occasion?*—No ; he was taken prisoner, and afterwards liberated. He died in Switzerland in 1817.

206. *When was the Third and Final Partition of Poland?*—It was in 1795, when the whole that remained of it was divided among Russia, Prussia, and Austria. The part taken by Russia embraced Warsaw, in which there have latterly been various ineffectual struggles for the recovery of Polish nationality.

207. *When did Catharine II. die?*—She died suddenly in 1796, and was succeeded by her son, Paul I., whom she had kept under restraint for 40 years.

208. *What was the fate of Paul I.?*—Deranged in intellect by misusage, he gave offence by his extravagant conduct, and was assassinated by a body of conspirators, 1801.

209. *Who succeeded the Emperor Paul?*—He was succeeded by his son Alexander I., brother of Nicholas, and uncle to the late emperor, in all of whose reigns Russia has made very important advances—the latest of its social improvements being the abolition of serfdom.

210. *When was Finland acquired by Russia?*—A portion of Finland was ceded to Russia by Sweden in 1721 ; the rest in 1809.

211. *What is the early history of Denmark?*—It forms a portion of the history of the Scandinavians, a people who

were once a formidable maritime power in Europe. The Danes made various descents on the British islands during the middle ages.

212. *Who was 'Hamlet, Prince of Denmark?'*—There is a legend concerning Hamlet, or Amleth, a prince of Denmark, who is said to have existed in exceedingly early times; on which legend Shakspeare has founded his tragedy of *Hamlet*. Authentic history has no account of any such personage.

213. *When does the history of Denmark begin to have any interest?*—About the middle of the 16th century, when the states of Holstein and Schleswig elected the king of Denmark as their hereditary Duke.

214. *Mention an estimable and eminent king of Denmark.*—Christian IV., who succeeded to the throne and duchies, 1588. His reign was signalised by great improvements in the arts, also by the extension of commerce and maritime power. He died in 1648.

215. *Mention a despicable king of Denmark.*—Christian VII., who succeeded his father, 1766, and was noted for his dissipations and his imbecility of character. He was almost entirely under the guidance of his mother, a weak and evil-disposed woman.

216. *Whom did Christian VII. marry?*—He married Caroline-Matilda, sister of George III. of England, whom he treated in the most barbarous manner.

217. *Who was Struensee?*—He was prime-minister of Denmark in the reign of Christian VII., to which position he had risen by his abilities in affairs of state; he had originally been a young physician at Altona.

218. *What was the Struensee affair?*—In consequence of certain scandals concerning the Queen Caroline-Matilda, in which Struensee was alleged to be implicated, he was arrested, brought to trial, and beheaded, 1772.

219. *Was Caroline-Matilda really guilty of the scandalous conduct of which she was accused?*—No; recent investigations shew that she was a victim to the enmity of the queen-dowager. An interesting memoir of the much-wronged Caroline-Matilda has been published in England, explaining the whole circumstances of the Struensee affair.

220. *What was the fate of Caroline-Matilda?*—She was confined as a prisoner in the fortress of Elsinore, until, by the interference of England, she was removed to the castle of Zell, in Hanover, where she died broken-hearted at the age of 23 years, 1775.

Prussia, and Austria resumed.

221. *What was the Duchy of Brandenburg?*—The Duchy or Mark of Brandenburg was a German province which formed the nucleus of the kingdom of Prussia.

222. *When did Brandenburg become a kingdom?*—In 1701, when the ruling elector placed a crown on his head, and styled himself king of Prussia, under the title of Frederick I.

223. *How has the originally small kingdom been extended in dimensions?*—By successive acts of aggression on neighbouring countries, particularly Poland; such acts being sustained by a large and generally well-disciplined army.

224. *Who succeeded Frederick I.?*—He was succeeded by his son, Frederick-William I., who was remarkable for his military organisation, and desire to form regiments of tall soldiers—a fancy which induced him to connive at the most flagrant outrages for kidnapping tall men and forcing them into his service.

225. *Who was 'Frederick the Great'?*—He was Frederick II., son of Frederick-William I. and Sophia-Dorothea, sister of George II. of England. Frederick ascended the throne on the death of his father, 1740, and his talents and ability as a ruler gained him the title of 'Great.'

226. *What was the character of Frederick II.?*—He was one of the greatest military commanders of his age, fertile in resource, economical, of indomitable resolution, and fond of literature and the arts. He disliked the German language, spoke and wrote French, and was a patron of Voltaire, the eminent French writer.



Frederick the Great.

227. *What were the territorial acquisitions of Frederick II.?*—By his warlike operations and skilful diplomacy, he gained Silesia and a large portion of Poland; at his death, he left Prussia one-half larger than it had been at his accession, also a full treasury, and an army of 200,000 men.

228. *When did Frederick II. die?*—He died 1786, and was succeeded by his nephew, Frederick-William II., in whose reign Prussia participated in the final division of Poland.

229. *When did the male line of the House of Hapsburg expire?*—It expired by the death of Charles VI., emperor of Germany, 1740.

230. *Who was Maria-Theresa?*—She was daughter of Charles VI., emperor of Germany, whose archdukedom of Austria, sovereignty of Hungary, and other dignities she inherited, in virtue of the Pragmatic Sanction.

231. *What is meant by 'Pragmatic Sanction?'*—The term strictly signifies 'a business arrangement which is generally acknowledged;' but in history, it is variously applied to decrees and settlements affecting national liberties or the succession to the throne.

232. *What was the Pragmatic Sanction as regards Maria-Theresa?*—Charles VI., Emperor of Germany, having lost his son, named his daughter, Maria-Theresa, as his heir, and the decree or instrument making this appointment, which was out of the usual routine, was known as the Pragmatic Sanction.

233. *What was the War of the Austrian Succession?*—It was a war which sprung out of the irregular succession of Maria-Theresa to the archdukedom of Austria and sovereignty of Hungary, to which several princes objected. In this war, Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Naples, and Sardinia, stirred up by France, were opposed to Maria-Theresa, who, however, was finally victorious.

234. *Who were the three great continental sovereigns in the second half of the 18th century?*—Catharine the Great of Russia, Frederick the Great of Prussia, and the Empress Maria-Theresa of Austria, who was a woman of singular energy and ability, and of a greatly more estimable character than Catharine.

235. *Whom did Maria-Theresa marry?*—She married Francis-Stephen, Grand-duke of Tuscany, and had three sons and six daughters; at her decease, 1780, she was succeeded by her eldest son, Joseph I. Her youngest daughter was Marie Antoinette, born November 2, 1755.

France concluded.

236. *Who was Louis XVI.?*—He was grandson of Louis XV., who, by the death of his father, became Dauphin, and succeeded to the throne, 1774. Louis XVI. had two younger brothers, the Count de Provence and the Count d'Artois; also a sister, the Princess Elizabeth.

237. *Whom did Louis XVI. marry?*—While Dauphin, he was

married to Marie Antoinette, daughter of Maria Theresa of Austria, and noted as one of the most beautiful women of her time. An interesting account of her marriage, and of the court of France, is given in the *Memoirs of Madame Campan*.

238. *What was the character of Louis XVI.?*—He was a good-natured and well-meaning man, who had not the ability to confront and overcome the dangers which menaced the monarchy.

239. *Who was Turgot?*—He was one of the ministers employed by Louis XVI.—a man with enlarged views concerning commerce; but by attempting to control the nobility, they united against him, and he was dismissed; he died 1781.

240. *Who was Necker?*—He was an able finance minister who succeeded Turgot; he materially improved the finances, but having proposed to tax the nobility and clergy, he likewise was driven from power; he was, however, recalled, and shared in the troubles which soon after broke out; he died at Geneva, 1804.

241. *What promoted a derangement in the finances of France?*—The outlays incurred in assisting the British-American colonists to secure their independence, which led to a costly war with England, from 1774 till the peace of Paris, 1782.

242. *What was the French Revolution?*—It was a great political and social convulsion, in which the monarchy and all the institutions of the country were overthrown; the era of the revolution was 1789 to 1794, but it began to threaten as early as 1787.

243. *Give a summary of the chief causes which led to the French Revolution—*

1. The concentration of all power in the sovereign, which had been promoted by Richelieu and perfected by Louis XIV.

2. The withdrawal of the landed aristocracy from the rural districts, and their continued residence at Paris, which acquired a dangerously-preponderating influence.

3. The neglect of the peasantry, who were oppressed by taxes, and compelled to work on the roads and render labour otherwise, without compensation.

4. The odious privileges of the nobility, who, while servile to the court, were arrogant in demeanour to the common people, none of whom could hope by talent or industry to rise in the social scale.

5. The vices of the higher clergy, and general profligacy of manners.

6. The writings of Rousseau, Voltaire, D'Alembert,

Helvetius, Diderot, and others, who held up religion to ridicule and reprobation.

7. The generally perverted administration of justice, and the liability to being committed to the Bastile, and kept for years in confinement without trial.

8. The seeming impracticability of a constitutional reform of abuses ; for the States-General had not met since 1614, and the art of holding deliberative assemblies was lost.

9. The naturally high spirit of the French people, who, galled to the limits of endurance, were ready for any outbreak.

10. The increase of a wealthy class of traders, or burgher class, who, by law and usage, were shut out from offices of honour or trust, which were reserved alone for the nobility.

11. The fantastic notions of Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity excited by the successful revolt of the North-American colonies, which revolt had been assisted by France.

12. Financial disorder, which was past remedy on account of the nobility and clergy resisting all attempts to be taxed.

244. *Was the Parliament of Paris concerned in bringing on the Revolution?*—The parliament was to some extent blamable ; for, having recovered its independence, it refused to register the absolutely necessary decrees of the king as regards loans and taxes.

245. *What was a 'Bed of Justice'?*—A bed of justice (*lit de justice*) consisted in the sovereign personally appearing before the Parliament of Paris, and forcing the court to register his decrees, which he was entitled to do ; but this was an extreme measure rarely resorted to.

246. *What was the first step in the Revolution?*—The convoking of the States-General.

247. *When did the States-General meet?*—The States-General met at Versailles, May 5, 1789 ; but great dissensions ensued, and the meetings were abortive, until the three orders—commons, clergy, and nobles—united under the title of the National Assembly. Other assemblies of different kinds followed in the progress of the Revolution.

248. *What men were raised to notoriety by the Revolution?*—Mirabeau, Lafayette, Barnave, Talleyrand, Roland, Brissot, Dumouriez, Marat, Danton, Philippe Duke of Orleans, who styled himself Philippe Egalité, Robespierre, and many others.

249. *When was the Bastile destroyed?*—It was attacked by the infuriated populace, July 14 and 15, 1789, when it was

captured and destroyed, and its governor and other officers killed.

250. *When was the 'tri-colore' flag adopted?*—The French 'tri-colore' flag was adopted by the revolutionists in 1789; it consists of three vertical stripes—blue, white, and red—the blue next the staff.

251. *When was France divided into Departments?*—In November 1789, when the old divisions in provinces were abolished.

252. *Who were the French emigrants?*—The French emigrants (*émigrés*) were vast numbers of the nobility and clergy who fled from France at the outbreak of the Revolution—a fatal and cowardly step, which greatly facilitated the progress of disorder.

253. *Did the royal family attempt flight?*—Yes; but were brought back, June 1791.

254. *What was the 'Jacobin Club'?*—It was a political society with extreme republican views; its members were termed Jacobins, from their place of meeting in Paris being an old Jacobin convent.

255. *Who were the Girondists?*—They were the moderate republican party, and were so named from their leaders, Vergniaud and others, representatives from the department of the Gironde.

256. *What was a Cap of Liberty?*—It was a red woollen night-cap worn by the more ferocious of the French revolutionists. On the occasion of an attack on the Tuileries, June 20, 1792, Louis XVI., as an attempt to conciliate the mob, placed a cap of that kind on his head.

257. *What was the massacre of the 10th of August?*—It was the massacre of the Swiss guards and others at the palace of the Tuileries, by a savage mob of revolutionists, on the 10th of August 1792, when 5000 persons were slaughtered.

258. *What were 'Trees of Liberty'?*—They were trees planted along the public thoroughfares in French cities commemorative of the so-called liberty gained by the Revolution. Planted hastily, few of these trees grew, and many were cut down or removed. Sometimes a pole was set up bearing a cap of liberty, and such pole was called a 'tree of liberty.'

259. *When was monarchy abolished and a republic established?*—September 22, 1792, from which date a new calendar was subsequently instituted—the year 1 of the French republic beginning with that date.

260. *When did the French declare their fraternity with all*

nations desirous of being free, and offer to help them?—On the 19th November 1792, the revolutionary convention made this extraordinary declaration, which was everywhere viewed as an encouragement to rebellion, and created great alarm throughout Europe.

261. *When was Louis XVI. beheaded?*—He was beheaded January 21, 1793; and Marie Antoinette, his queen, was beheaded on the 16th of October following.

262. *What was the memorable saying uttered by Burke when speaking of the misfortunes and unfriended condition of Marie Antoinette?*—It was: 'The age of chivalry is gone'—a saying often since quoted.

263. *What caused the outbreak of the great French War?*—The horror entertained in England and some other countries regarding the cruel treatment of the royal family, but more particularly the alarm caused by the declaration of the Convention, which induced threats of foreign interference with the domestic affairs of France; these threats stimulated the military and patriotic ardour of the French to an extravagant pitch—hence the long and desperate war that ensued; hence, also, the Reign of Terror.



Marie Antoinette.

264. *What was the 'Reign of Terror'?*—It was a time of general terror, extending from the autumn of 1793 till the middle of 1794, when great numbers of persons in all parts of France were put to death by the guillotine and otherwise.

265. *Mention three conspicuous promoters of the Reign of Terror.*—Marat, Danton, and Robespierre.

266. *What was the fate of Marat?*—He was assassinated, July 13, 1793, by Charlotte Corday, a young woman who took this bad method of avenging some family wrongs.

267. *What was the fate of Danton?*—Like many others, including the Duke of Orleans, he fell a victim to the revolutionary tribunal which he had helped to establish, and was beheaded, April 5, 1794.

268. *What was the character of Robespierre?*—He is said to have had some good qualities—was unselfish, honest, and simple in his habits—but he was a political fanatic and tyrant of the worst description; his governing notion was, that society

could only be rectified by the extirpation of all who were in the least favourable to monarchy or aristocracy.

269. *What was the fate of Robespierre?*—The surviving members of the moderate party, gathering courage to resist the Terrorists, caused Robespierre to be seized, and he was beheaded, July 28, 1794, when the Reign of Terror closed.

270. *What was the number usually beheaded daily in Paris during the Reign of Terror?*—The number usually varied from about 30 to 50; but sometimes there were many more: along with Robespierre there were 27 others beheaded, and next day, as a finish of his party, 73 were guillotined.



Robespierre.

271. *What were 'Fusillades'?*—They were shootings of crowds of victims by cannon; this method of execution was adopted at Lyon, where the progress of the revolution had been resisted.

272. *What were 'Noyades'?*—They were drownings of great numbers, who were crowded into vessels for the purpose; the vessels were sunk, until all they contained were drowned. In this manner Carrier, a monster of cruelty, drowned 10,000 victims at Nantes.

273. *How many perished altogether during the Revolution?*—Upwards of a million, or about a twentieth part of the population; but in this number are included those who were killed in the war in La Vendée.

274. *What was the War in La Vendée?*—It was a civil war in La Vendée, in the west of France, where a bold but unavailing effort was made to uphold the monarchy; the war, which lasted three years, was suppressed by the republican forces in 1796.

275. *What was the fate of the Church in France at the Revolution?*—The church was abolished, and its whole possessions appropriated by the state; Christianity itself was proscribed; many of the ecclesiastical edifices were used as warehouses and stables; and for a season there was a hideous saturnalia of irreligion, along with an affected worship of *Reason*, represented by a female, styled 'the goddess of Reason.'

276. *What were 'Assignats'?*—They were assignments to portions of land which had been in possession of the church;

such lands being called National Domains (*Domaines Nationaux*). These assignats were profusely issued as paper-money, and varied in expressed value ; the first issue was in 1790.

277. *What was the fate of the assignats?*—Being issued in immense quantities by the government, they speedily sunk in value, till at last they were worthless, and nobody would take them in exchange for articles. The assignats were withdrawn, 1796, after causing great confusion.

278. *Who was Dumouriez?*—He was the first great Republican general. In the campaign of 1792, he repeatedly beat the Prussians and Austrians on the north and north-east frontier ; but becoming disgusted with the anarchy and cruelty of the Jacobins at Paris, he entered into negotiations to restore the Bourbons, which being discovered, he had to fly from his own troops ; he retired to England, where he died, 1823.

279. *Who was the Duke de Chartres?*—He was the eldest son of Philippe, Duke of Orleans, and accompanied Dumouriez in his flight ; after various vicissitudes, he also found refuge in England.

280. *Who was Louis XVII.*?—He was a child of Louis XVI., who died from cruel treatment, 1795 ; his title was merely nominal, for the country was governed as a republic.

281. *What was the Directory?*—It was a body of five individuals, who, in 1795, were empowered by the 'Council of Five Hundred' to conduct the administration of public affairs. The Directory was in power about four years.

282. *Who was Carnot?*—He was a skilled military officer, who had the merit of organising the French republican army, the successes of which were greatly owing to his well-conceived plans.

283. *Who was Pichegru?*—He was a military commander, who conducted a French republican army into the Netherlands, 1794 ; there drove the combined English and Dutch forces before him ; crossed the Waal and the Meuse on the ice, January 1795, and made the French masters of Holland and Flanders.

284. *What was the later career of Pichegru?*—It was one of a very unhappy kind ; having intrigued for the restoration of the Bourbons, and the overthrow of the government under Consul Napoleon Bonaparte, he was thrown into prison, where he died by his own hands, 1804.

285. *Who was Napoleon Bonaparte?*—He was a native of

(Corsica, where he was born August 15, 1769. Receiving a military education, he entered the French republican army, and came favourably into notice by his dashing campaign and conquests in Italy, 1796.

286. *What were the peculiar tactics of Napoleon?*—Far-sighted ingenuity of plan, celerity of movement, and audacity of assault by concentrated and overpowering masses; Napoleon, besides, possessed great firmness and resolution, and was unscrupulous in the means he employed.

287. *Who was Josephine?*—She was a native of Martinique, and widow of the Viscount de Beauharnois, who lived in Paris with a son and daughter, Eugene and Hortense, in 1796, when she was married to Napoleon.

288. *When did the French invade Egypt?*—The French, under the command of Napoleon, invaded Egypt, 1798, and were successful in wresting that country from the Turks.

289. *What was the battle of the Nile?*—It was a victory gained by the British fleet, under Nelson, over the French fleet, at the mouth of the Nile, August 1, 1798; by this and subsequent disasters, the French had to quit Egypt, and relinquish their projects in the East.

290. *What is a coup d'état?*—A *coup d'état* is an abrupt and unexpected overturn of the form of government.

291. *What was the nature of the coup d'état of the 18th Brumaire?*—It was the overthrow of the Council of Five Hundred and Directory by Napoleon, who employed armed force for the purpose. The 18th Brumaire corresponds with the 10th November 1799.

292. *What incident was parallel to this in the history of England?*—The expulsion of the Long Parliament by Oliver Cromwell, 1653. Napoleon was to the French revolution what Cromwell had been to the great English civil war.

293. *What position did Napoleon hold after the coup d'état of the 18th Brumaire?*—He became a species of Dictator, with the title of First Consul—a step to still higher power.

294. *What was the battle of Marengo?*—It was a victory of the French army over the Austrians, June 14, 1800—this and other victories greatly increasing the popularity and power of Napoleon.

295. *When was the 'Decimal system' legalised in France?*—The decimal system of weights and measures, which had been in preparation since 1790, was legalised in 1801.

296. *When was the Church re-established in France?*—

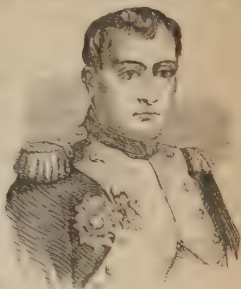
Napoleon re-established the church along with the papal authority in France, 1801, but subject to the provisions of a *concordat*.

297. *What is a Concordat?*—It is a treaty of agreement between the ruling civil power of a country and the pope, in which mutual rights as regards control over certain church affairs are stipulated for. There have been various concordats between the rulers of France and the papacy; that which now exists is favourable to the rights of the state.

298. *When was the Legion of Honour instituted?*—It was instituted as an order of merit by Napoleon, when First Consul under the Republic, 1802.

299. *Who was Toussaint-Louverture?*—He was a distinguished negro military commander in the island of St Domingo, after that island had been revolutionised in 1791 by the example of France, to which country it belonged.

300. *What was the fate of Toussaint-Louverture?*—He was induced to come to France, relying on assurances of safety, but was cruelly put in prison, where he languished and died, April 1803.



Napoleon I.

301. *Who was the Duke d'Enghien?*—He was the only son of Prince Henri Duke de Bourbon, and last descendant of the 'Great Condé.' He commanded a part of the army which attempted, from the side of Germany, to suppress the republic, but was living retiredly in the duchy of Baden when he was unlawfully seized by order of Napoleon on the night of March 4, 1804.

302. *What was the fate of the Duke d'Enghien?*—On a pretended accusation of being concerned in a plot to assassinate Bonaparte, he was condemned and shot within the fortress of Vincennes, March 20, 1804—an act which has fixed a lasting stigma on the character of Napoleon.

303. *When was Napoleon created emperor?*—France was constituted an empire, of which Napoleon was created emperor, with the title of Napoleon I., May 18, 1804.

304. *What was the battle of Austerlitz?*—It was a celebrated victory gained by the French over the Austrians and Russians, December 2, 1805; this victory led to the subjugation of

Germany, and, with some other victories, gave a paramount power to Napoleon in continental Europe.

305. *When was the French republican calendar abolished?*—It was abolished by Napoleon, and the ordinary calendar resumed, January 1, 1806.

306. *What is the 'Code Napoleon?'*—It is a great body of law, civil, criminal, and commercial, executed by order of Napoleon, between 1803 and 1808; this comprehensive code superseded all the old laws of France, which were of a very confused nature, and remains the legal code till this day. The 'Code Napoleon' has been adopted in the Netherlands and some other countries.

307. *When did the Holy Roman Empire cease?*—The Holy Roman Empire, of which Charlemagne was created the first emperor, 800 A. D., and which latterly had been called the 'German Empire,' was broken up by the conquests of Napoleon. In 1806, the emperor of Germany renounced that title, and assumed the title of emperor of Austria.

308. *Who were the 'Electors of Germany?'*—They were certain princes and primates, eight in number, who enjoyed the privilege of electing the emperor of Germany; by the dissolution of the German empire by Napoleon, the title of elector ceased, and is now used only in an honorary way by the 'Elector of Hesse-Cassel.'

309. *What changes were made by Napoleon on continental states?*—He transformed Wurtemberg and Saxony into kingdoms, and absorbed various adjoining territories into France. Hanover was created a kingdom by George III., 1814.

310. *What was the battle of Jena?*—It was a severe and humiliating defeat of the Prussians by the French, October 14, 1806.

311. *What was the battle of Wagram?*—It was a victory gained by the French over the Austrians at Wagram, on the Danube, July 5 and 6, 1809; by this defeat, the Austrians could make no further head against Napoleon.

312. *When did Napoleon divorce Josephine?*—She was divorced by him 16th December 1809; and shortly afterwards, Napoleon married Maria Louisa, archduchess of Austria, by whom he had a son.

313. *What was the Russian campaign?*—It was the invasion of Russia by the French under Napoleon, 1812; owing to the burning of Moscow by the Russians and the severity of winter, the campaign proved fatal, the 'grand army' was

destroyed, and Napoleon suffered his first great reverse of fortune.

314. *Why did Napoleon invade Russia?*—His chief reason was to force the Emperor Alexander to adopt the French commercial policy against England, as laid down in the famed Berlin decree of 1806; in short, because Alexander would not help to ruin England, Napoleon went to war against him, and met with a just retribution.

315. *What was the effect of the great reverse suffered by Napoleon?*—It destroyed the idea of Napoleon's infallibility, and stimulated the Germanic people, especially the Prussians, to rise *en masse* against their French oppressors.

316. *What followed?*—In 1813—1814, the famous War of Liberation, in which the Germans, assisted by the Russians, achieved prodigies of valour, and, in spite of the magnificent strategy of Napoleon, drove the French in disorder across the Rhine.

317. *What was the battle of Leipsic?*—It was the greatest battle fought in the 'War of Liberation,' and has been called the 'battle of nations;' it was fought on a field near Leipsic, October 16—19, 1813, when the French were routed with great slaughter.

318. *What other reverses was Napoleon suffering?*—His armies, which had overrun the Peninsula, suffered many defeats from the British under the Duke of Wellington; and these, added to his reverses in Germany, brought on a collapse of the gigantic power which had for twelve years been the terror of Europe.

319. *When did Napoleon abdicate?*—Pressed on by the allies—Prussians, Austrians, Russians, and British—Napoleon abdicated, April 5, 1814, when the French war closed. Shortly afterwards Napoleon was exiled to Elba, which he quitted, March 1815, and the war was for a short time resumed.

320. *What was the reign of the 'Hundred days?'*—It was the period during which Napoleon resumed his power in Paris, from the beginning of March till the 12th of June 1815, when he proceeded to join his army in order to encounter the allies in the Netherlands.

321. *What was the battle of Waterloo?*—It was a final struggle of the British and their allies, under the Duke of Wellington, against Napoleon Bonaparte, June 18, 1815, when he was thoroughly vanquished.

322. *When were the Bourbons restored to the throne of France?*—The Count de Provence, brother of Louis XVI., was placed

on the throne as Louis XVIII., 1814, and after the battle of Waterloo he reigned till his death, 1824.

323. *What became of Napoleon?*—He endeavoured to escape, but failing in the attempt, he surrendered, and was sent by the British government to the island of St Helena, where he died, May 5, 1821.

324. *What was the Congress of Vienna?*—It was a meeting of representatives of the allied powers of Europe, which was held at Vienna from November 1814 to June 1815, where numerous national interests were adjusted. The settlement on this occasion is often referred to as the 'Treaty of Vienna.'

325. *What was the Holy Alliance?*—It was a league formed by the sovereigns of Russia, Prussia, and Austria in September 1815, ostensibly for the purpose of regulating the mutual relations of the states of Europe on Christian principles. Other powers, including England, acceded to the league, which had practically the effect of securing to each ruler the right to tyrannise over his subjects without control or remonstrance.

326. *What was the fate of the Holy Alliance?*—France and England seceded from it; and becoming ridiculous, it sunk out of notice.

327. *Who was Napoleon II.?*—He was the infant son of Napoleon I., who abdicated in his favour, 1815; but the arrangement was of no practical avail. This son of Napoleon, best known as the Duke of Reichstadt, died while young at Vienna, 1832.

328. *Who was Charles X.?*—He was the Count d'Artois, brother of Louis XVIII., whom he succeeded as king of France, 1824.

329. *Was the Restoration of the Bourbons in 1814 acceptable to the French?*—No; the restoration of the Bourbons being effected by the allied powers, their rule was odious to their subjects, and their unwise policy confirmed the popular dislike.

330. *What was the famous saying of Talleyrand respecting the restored Bourbons?*—He said that 'they had forgot nothing and learned nothing'—meaning that their errors, like those of the Stuarts, were incorrigible, even by the gravest misfortunes.

331. *What was the Revolution of July?*—It was a violent outbreak in Paris in July 1830, caused by the unwise and despotic measures of Charles X., and terminated in his deposition and flight.

332. *Who was the Duke de Berry?*—He was second son of Charles X., and was assassinated February 14, 1820; his son

is Henri Duke de Bordeaux, sometimes styled Count de Chambord, who, by the death of the Duke d'Angouleme, his father's elder brother, remains the representative of the elder branch of the House of Bourbon.

333. *Who was Louis Philippe?*—He was the Duke of Orleans—formerly Duke de Chartres—eldest son of Philippe Duke of Orleans, who conspicuously figured and perished in the great revolution of 1789. Louis Philippe was placed on the throne as 'King of the French,' August 9, 1830.

334. *What was the Revolution of 1848?*—It was a popular insurrection arising out of the misgovernment of Louis Philippe and his minister Guizot. Louis Philippe fled to England, where he died, 1850.

335. *Who was Ferdinand Duke of Orleans?*—He was the eldest son of Louis Philippe, and lost his life by accident, July 13, 1842; leaving two sons, the elder of whom, styled Count de Paris, is the representative of the younger or Orleans branch of the House of Bourbon.

336. *What did the French do on the flight of Louis Philippe?*—They once more tried a republic, at first under a Provisional Government; for a time there was a resumption of 'Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity,' as a popular dogma, and 'trees of liberty' were planted.

337. *Who were the 'Red Republicans?'*—They were a party who held extreme views at the revolution of 1848, and seemed inclined to make a general partition of property, and re-organise a Reign of Terror; they were, however, restrained by the eloquent and temperate addresses of Lamartine.

338. *Who was Lamartine?*—He was a literary man of fine tastes and susceptibilities, who, as a temporary chief at the revolution of 1848, performed invaluable service. Lamartine retired from public life in 1852, and died in 1869.

339. *What other men became conspicuous at the revolution of 1848?*—Louis Blanc, Albert, Ledru Rollin, Arago, Thiers, Prudhon, and Cavaignac.

340. *What was the 'Organisation of Labour?'*—It was a project of certain Socialist clubs, to the effect that government should in some way employ everybody, and pay them wages.

341. *What were 'Ateliers Nationaux?'*—They were national workshops established as part of the organisation of labour, in order to give universal employment at the cost of the public finances. They were promoted chiefly by Louis Blanc, Albert, and one or two other Socialists; but all the members of the Provisional Government consented to their institution.

342. *What was the fate of the Ateliers Nationaux?*—They were soon given up as ruinous.

343. *What ensued on the dissolution of the Ateliers Nationaux?*—A terrible outbreak, and the erection of barricades in the streets of Paris, June 1848; the insurrection was suppressed by General Cavaignac, but only after 6000 persons were killed.

344. *What has been thought of the French project of 'organising labour?'*—The universal opinion is, that it shewed a pitiable ignorance of the first principles of social economy, not only in the people, but those who aspired to lead them.

345. *What succeeded the Provisional Government?*—A regular republic, with an Assembly and President.

346. *Who was Louis Napoleon Bonaparte?*—He was son of Louis Bonaparte, brother of Napoleon; his mother was Hortense, daughter of Josephine; he was born 1808. Louis Napoleon was declared President of the new French republic by a popular vote, December 20, 1848.

347. *Was the Assembly of 1848 an able legislative body?*—No; as regards legislative capacity, it proved a complete failure; and this circumstance, joined to a dread of the Red Republicans, disposed the nation for a new *coup d'état*; an overthrow of this kind, on the plea of national necessity, took place under direction of Louis Napoleon, December 2, 1851.

348. *When did Louis Napoleon become emperor?*—By a popular vote, he became Emperor of the French under the title of Napoleon III., December 2, 1852—republicanism having thus a second time sunk under a Dictator.

349. *What are Prefects?*—A prefect (*préfet*) is an officer appointed by government to administer public affairs in a Department; there is one for each of the Departments in France, all taking their orders from the Minister of the Interior in Paris.

350. *Why is the form of government of France so easily changed by a coup d'état or revolution?*—Because, whatever may be the professed character of the government, it really consists of a single central authority situated in the capital, whence its orders are issued to the prefects.

351. *What facilities does this centralised system offer for revolution?*—An insurrectionary mob has only to crush the central power in Paris by military violence, and, seizing the telegraph at the Ministry of the Interior, issue commands to the prefects

all over France ; by which means a new order of things may be at once established.

352. *Explain how the government of Great Britain differs from that of France.*—The British executive government does not interfere—nor has it the power to interfere—with the administration of local affairs ; these affairs are in the hands of the civic and county magistracy, who act independently according to the provisions of acts of parliament. Consequently, any dislocation of the executive at Westminster would have little effect in disturbing the usual routine of affairs throughout the country.

353. *Define more briefly the difference of government in France and England?*—France is governed by an arbitrary authority, be it called a monarchy or a republic ; England is governed by law, under a constitution.

354. *When the republicans were in power in France, did they attempt to substitute a system of independent local administration for central authority?*—No ; they ruled precisely in the same manner as an emperor or dictator ; and it does not appear that the people understand or are prepared for anything else.

355. *What was the policy of Napoleon III.?*—It was a policy favourable to the material prosperity of France, which under him made great advances. Towns and cities have been much improved ; Paris, in particular, has been almost rebuilt, and rendered the most beautiful city in the world ; and manufacturing and commercial industry have been prodigiously extended.



Napoleon III.

356. *What was the Franco-Prussian War?*—It was a war declared by France against Prussia, in July 1870, on the ground that the king of Prussia refused to prohibit the candidature of his relative, Prince Leopold, for the vacant throne of Spain. The French armies were vanquished ; the Emperor Napoleon III. was deposed by a Parisian mob ; the German forces gained possession of a large part of France, and imposed a heavy pecuniary fine on the country. France is now a republic.

357. *What was the fate of Napoleon III. and of his only son, Eugene Louis?*—Napoleon III. died in exile at Chiselhurst in 1873 ; the Prince Imperial was killed in Zululand in 1879.

Concluding Historical Questions.

1. *What was the origin of Venice?*—Venice originated in the settlement of the poorer inhabitants of Northern Italy, taking refuge on islands in the Adriatic from the attacks of the Huns under Attila, about 452.

2. *How did Venice become a great commercial city?*—By becoming an *entrepôt* of commerce with the East, previous to the discovery of a passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope.

3. *How were the wealth and importance of Venice demonstrated?*—By the building of grand palaces by the merchant-princes along the chief watery thoroughfares. These palaces still exist as a melancholy memorial of decayed grandeur.

4. *What was the nature of the Venetian government until modern times?*—It consisted of an aristocratic republic or oligarchy, with a senate and doge.

5. *What was the Doge of Venice?*—He was the elective president of the republic of Venice, and ruled with the power of a sovereign. The term *doge*, like the title *duke*, is from the Latin *duco*, to lead.

6. *When did the Venetian Republic terminate?*—It came abruptly to an end by the invasion of the French, 1797; in 1814, Venice, with its territory, passed into the possession of Austria.

7. *Who was Charles of Anjou?*—He was brother of Louis IX. (Saint Louis), and received from Pope Urban IV. a grant of the kingdom of Sicily and Naples, 1254, to the exclusion of the rightful heir.

8. *What were the 'Sicilian Vespers?'*—That was the name given to a massacre of the French in Sicily, consequent on their taking possession of the country; the massacre began at Palermo on Easter Monday, 1282, and 8000 French were slaughtered. The kingdom subsided into a possession of Spain.

9. *Who was Cæsar Borgia?*—He was a dissolute and rapacious military commander in Italy, son of Pope Alexander VI., who, aiming at becoming king of Romagna, perpetrated numerous atrocities. He was at last captured and taken to Spain, where he was killed, 1507. The cruelties of Cæsar Borgia, and the vices of his sister Lucrezia, have condemned the name to infamy.

10. *What English poet refers to Borgia?*—Pope, in his *Essay on Man*, has the lines :

‘If plagues or earthquakes break not Heaven’s design,
Why then a Borgia, or a Catiline?’

11. *What was the Florentine Republic?*—It was one of several eminent, though small aristocratic republics in Italy, from the 12th to the 16th century. Its capital was Florence, which became enriched with treasures of art.

12. *Who was Savonarola?*—He was a learned and eloquent Italian monk, who, about 1490, caused a great excitement in Florence by preaching against the observances of the church of Rome, and also preaching a reform in the aristocratic constitution of the republic; in the heat of his enthusiasm, Savonarola declared that he possessed supernatural authority.

13. *What was the fate of Savonarola?*—He was excommunicated as a heretic, and being brought to trial, was first put to the rack to confess his errors, and then strangled and burned, 1498. There are differences of opinion regarding Savonarola’s conduct as an ecclesiastical and political reformer, but all lament his cruel fate.

14. *Who was Machiavelli?*—He was a statesman in the Florentine republic, in the early part of the 16th century, noted for his sagacity and literary abilities. He suffered from the oppressive proceedings of the Medici family, and died in 1527, leaving some historical and other treatises.

15. *What is meant by ‘Machiavellism?’*—Such is the name ordinarily given to any system of policy which supports law and authority, however unscrupulous in the use of means. The term is derived from Machiavelli, who, in one of his speculative treatises, vindicates the use of treachery and other odious artifices in order, if need be, to secure the authority of a ruler. Some have thought that Machiavelli wrote only ironically on this subject.

16. *Who was Masaniello?*—Masaniello, or properly Tommaso Aniello, was a fisherman of Naples, who led a revolt in that city against the Spanish viceroy, whose oppressions had exasperated the people, 1647. Masaniello became frenzied by success, and was killed by his own associates.

17. *What was the French kingdom of Italy?*—It was a kingdom created out of the French conquests in Italy, of which Napoleon was constituted king, 1805—an arrangement which lasted till 1814.

18. *What was the kingdom of the Two Sicilies?*—It consisted

of the island of Sicily and the mainland of Italy adjoining Naples.

19. *Who was Murat?*—He was one of the generals of Napoleon, who assigned to him the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, 1808. Murat lost this possession at the peace of 1814, and was shot as a criminal, after making a vain attempt to recover the kingdom, 1815.

20. *Who was Bernadotte?*—He was originally a sergeant in the French army, who, by good-conduct and military skill, rose to be a commander; he greatly distinguished himself at the battle of Austerlitz, and by Napoleon was created Prince of Ponte-Corvo. Bernadotte was elected king of Sweden, 1810, and the throne of that country is now occupied by his descendant. Of all Bonaparte's generals, Bernadotte was the most worthy and respected.

21. *What was the Treaty of Vienna?*—The best known Treaty of Vienna is that between Great Britain, Austria, Russia, and Prussia, 1815, settling the re-arrangement of European countries, as they now generally appear. A supplementary treaty defined the kingdom of the Netherlands.

22. *How was the kingdom of the Netherlands defined by the Treaty of Vienna?*—The whole Netherlands were constituted a kingdom vested in the House of Orange.

23. *When was the kingdom of the Netherlands broken up into two parts?*—It was broken up by a revolution in 1830; in 1831, the Northern or Dutch provinces were constituted the kingdom of the Netherlands, and the Southern were constituted the separate kingdom of Belgium.

24. *Who was created king of Belgium?*—Prince Leopold of Saxe-Cobourg, whose first wife was the Princess Charlotte of Wales. In 1832, Leopold married the Princess Louise, daughter of Louis Philippe, king of the French, and in their family is vested the succession to the crown of Belgium.

25. *When did Greece become a possession of the Turks?*—After 1453, when the Mohammedans captured Constantinople.

26. *When did the people of Greece rebel against the Turkish dominion?*—In 1820, when the Greeks, favoured by the good wishes of all Christendom, made a strenuous effort to shake off the Turkish power, in which they were aided by the celebrated Lord Byron, 1823.

27. *When did the Greeks achieve their independence?*—In 1829, since which, Greece has been a distinct kingdom. In 1881, Greece received an extensive accession of territory.

28. *Who were the Knights of Malta?*—The Knights of Malta, or more correctly, the Knights of St John of Jerusalem, were a celebrated military and religious order of the middle ages, to whom was finally assigned the island of Malta, which they retained under the chief or Grand-Master, until 1798, when the island was surrendered to the French, and the order dissolved.

29. *When was Malta captured by the British?*—It was captured from the French, 1800; and by treaty, remains a British possession.

30. *Who were the Mamelukes?*—They were a military body in Egypt, consisting of highly-trained slaves, generally white, from the Caucasus. Nominally, they were a force at command of the Pasha or Turkish viceroy, but in reality the Pasha was controlled by them. Mohammed Ali, Pasha, by a stratagem, caused a large number of the Mamelukes to be massacred, 1811, and the remainder were exterminated, 1820.

31. *Who were the Janizaries?*—They were a body of Turkish troops, formed originally about 1330, of the children of Christians who had been conquered, and were reared as Mohammedans. Latterly the Janizaries acted as the body-guard of the sultan at Constantinople, but on the ground of being turbulent and dangerous to the state, the force was dissolved, 1826 when 15,000 were executed, and more than 20,000 banished.

32. *What was the Helvetian Republic?*—The French, in their resistless progress, having subjugated Switzerland, 1797, formed it into the Helvetian Republic, 1798. The country is now a federation of cantons, and its independence is secured by the Treaty of Vienna, 1815.

33. *What was the Dey of Algiers?*—He was the Turkish chief of a body of Janizaries who long ruled Algiers and its neighbourhood, and carried on a system of piracy against the Christian maritime powers of Europe.

34. *When did the British fleet bombard Algiers?*—A British fleet, under Admiral Lord Exmouth, bombarded Algiers, August 16, 1816, when the dey was humbled, and Christian slavery abolished.

35. *When did the French take possession of Algiers?*—The French subdued and took possession of Algiers, 1830, since which time Algeria has been a possession of France.

36. *What effect had the French revolution of 1848 on Continental Europe?*—The revolutionary spirit spread to various countries, and to conciliate their subjects, several sovereigns

promised to give constitutions to their subjects; a reaction, however, took place in 1849—1850.

37. *Who was Pius IX.?*—Pius IX. (*Pio Nono*), late pope of Rome, was elected 1846, and began by pursuing a liberal policy; but his subjects acquired extreme views, consequent on the revolution in France, and his minister, Rossi, was assassinated, November 15, 1848, whereupon Pius IX. quitted Rome, and remained absent till affairs were tranquillised by the presence of a French army, 1850. In 1861, the Papal States, with the exception of Rome, were annexed to the Kingdom of Italy; and in 1870, Rome also was incorporated with it.

38. *Who was Garibaldi?*—He was a native of Nice, where he was born 1807; bred to the sea, and of a generous and intrepid character, he distinguished himself in defence of Rome when it was taken by the French, 1849. The most celebrated act of Garibaldi was the expulsion of the Bourbon dynasty from the Two Sicilies in 1859. He died in June 1882.

39. *Who was Victor Emmanuel?*—From being king of Sardinia he became king of Italy—a position which he gained partly by the assistance of Napoleon III. in the Franco-Italian war of 1859, when the Austrians were expelled from Lombardy, and several petty principalities subdued; also partly by the services of Garibaldi in securing the Two Sicilies as an addition to the new Italian kingdom.

40. *Of what is the modern kingdom of Italy composed?*—It comprehends the whole of Italy and the islands of Sardinia and Sicily, with the city of Rome as capital.

41. *What are the 'six great powers of Europe?'*—France, Germany, Austro-Hungary, Russia, Italy, and Great Britain.

42. *Is not Spain reckoned among the 'great powers?'*—It is not: Spain, which was once a 'great power,' has declined into a second or third rate power.

43. *When did Spain decline in power and importance?*—It declined in the reign of Philip II., son of the Emperor Charles V., in consequence of a long course of oppression and religious intolerance; but to this cause has been added general misgovernment, by which Spain lost its principal colonial possessions.

44. *When did Portugal emancipate itself from the dominion of Spain?*—Portugal, which had been wrongfully taken possession of by Spain, secured its independence under the House of Braganza. 1640.

45. *What was the 'Methuen Treaty'?*—It was a commercial treaty between England and Portugal, concluded by Paul Methuen, of Corsham, the English ambassador, 1703. In virtue of this treaty, the relations between England and Portugal have been of a friendly character.

46. *When did the great Earthquake at Lisbon take place?*—It took place November 1, 1755, when most of the city was destroyed, and within eight minutes upwards of 50,000 inhabitants were swallowed up.

47. *What extensive state in South America has sprung from Portugal?*—The empire of Brazil, which dates from about 1821, and has an emperor connected with the royal family of Portugal.

48. *What were the Hanse towns?*—They were certain free cities of Germany which, in the 13th century, formed a league or union for the purpose of common defence against pirates, baronial oppressors, and others. The term Hanse is from *Hansa*, which, in the old Teutonic dialect, signifies an association for mutual defence.

49. *What was the number of the Hanse towns?*—At one time there were as many as 85, chiefly on the Rhine, the Elbe, and shores of the Baltic. Bremen, Lübeck, and Hamburg were the principal cities in the Hanseatic union, which has disappeared in the progress of social improvement.

50. *What was the Zollverein?*—It was a commercial union of nearly all the German states, according to which customs-duties were levied only on the frontier of the union, for the common behoof. The Zollverein (customs union) began in 1818, and was merged in the German Empire in 1871.

51. *What was the Danish and German War?*—It was a war waged by Prussia, Austria, and other German powers against Denmark, chiefly on account of the inheritance to the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, 1863—1864. The result was fatal to Denmark, which, after suffering great losses, had to relinquish these duchies, and the war closed by a treaty of peace, November 1864.

52. *What was the Prusso-Austrian war of 1866?*—It was a war which originated in differences between Prussia and Austria regarding the occupation and disposal of the territory taken from Denmark, but was really due to the rivalry between the two states for the leadership of Germany. The war ended in the total defeat of Austria, the annexation to Prussia of the kingdom of Hanover and other German states

which had supported Austria, and the formation of a North German Confederation, consisting of the states north of the Main. During the Franco-Prussian war of 1870-71, the South German states joined the Northern Confederation, and the king of Prussia was elected emperor of Germany.

53. *What important nation has sprung from Great Britain?*—The United States of America, which were for the most part originally British colonies, and declared their independence, 1776, which was acknowledged by George III., 1783.

54. *What was the flag adopted by the United States?*—It was a flag consisting of stars and stripes—the stars white on a blue ground, and the stripes red and white alternately.

55. *What form of government did the United States adopt?*—They adopted a republic, with an elective president, whose term of office is four years.

56. *Mention the names of those who became conspicuous in securing independence to the United States?*—George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin, Patrick Henry, John Jay, John Adams, Alexander Hamilton, and Josiah Quincy, also several others. All were men of cultivated minds and firm resolution; but to Washington's military genius belongs the chief merit in this great and successful struggle.

57. *What was the position and character of Washington?*—He was a Virginian gentleman of good education, polished manners, and of English descent. His character is considered to have been one of the most estimable in history; entertaining no selfish or ambitious views, he placidly retired into private life on the conclusion of the war, 1783.

58. *Who was the first President of the United States?*—George Washington, who reluctantly quitted private life, and accepted office, 1789. He served a second time as president, and to the grief of the nation, died December 14, 1799.

59. *Who was the first ambassador to France from the United States?*—Benjamin Franklin, who was ambassador to the court of Louis XVI. from 1776 to 1785, and was concerned in promoting a treaty of alliance between the United States and France.

60. *Mention some circumstances in the career of Franklin.*—He was born at Boston, Massachusetts, 1706; spent the greater part of his life as a printer at Philadelphia; and rose to distinction by his prudence and diligence, also by his scientific discoveries.

61. *What was Franklin's great electrical discovery?*—By means of a paper kite he brought down lightning from the clouds, and identified it with electric manifestations: this discovery led to the protection of tall buildings from lightning by means of iron rods as conductors.

62. *When did Franklin die?*—He died, April 17, 1790; his autobiography is prized as an interesting account of a man who rose from poverty and obscurity to fortune and fame, by diligence in his calling and other good qualities. Franklin was one of the most remarkable men of the 18th century.

63. *What was the last part of the North American continent relinquished by France?*—Louisiana, which was sold by Napoleon I. to the United States, 1812; many of the inhabitants of Louisiana being of French descent, they continue to speak the French language.

64. *What is meant by the 'Monroe Doctrine?'*—It signifies a policy inculcated by James Monroe, president from 1816 to 1824, to the effect, that the United States should neither interfere in European affairs, nor allow any further extension of European powers in North America.

65. *What were the 'Confederate States?'*—They were certain southern states which seceded from the Union, formed a separate confederation, and on a claim of independence broke into rebellion, 1861.

66. *What was the issue of the Confederate rebellion?*—After four years of a bloody civil war, the rebellion was suppressed, 1865.

67. *Who was Abraham Lincoln?*—He was President of the United States during the Confederate rebellion, and much esteemed for his high character and administrative capacity. He was assassinated, April 14, 1865.



Abraham Lincoln.

68. *Who was General Garfield?*—The twentieth President of the United States, who died, after a lingering illness, September 19, 1881, from the effects of the pistol shot of an assassin.

69. *Mention some parallel cases of assassination which are recorded in history?*—The assassination of Julius Cæsar, 44 B.C.; James I. of Scotland, 1437; William I., Prince of Orange, 1584; and Henry IV. of France, 1610.

70. *What was the effect on Germany of the war with France in 1870-71?*—Besides re-uniting Alsace and Lorraine to Germany, and securing the enormous sum of £200,000,000 as war indemnity, the German peoples, hitherto much divided in sympathy, were drawn closer together; so that at the end of the war, the twenty-five sovereign states of Germany united under a restored empire, King William of Prussia being chosen as Emperor.

71. *When did the former German Empire cease to exist as such?*—When the power of Napoleon I. was predominant on the continent, and when in 1806 the head of the house of Hapsburg took the title of Emperor of Austria.

72. *Is Austria now accounted part of Germany?*—No. Although the most important part of its population is German, Austria has not been regarded as a German state since the Austro-Prussian war of 1866, and has no kind of connection with the new German Empire.

73. *Who is Bismarck?*—Count Bismarck, born in 1813, became early in life a notable Prussian statesman, and was for many years the guiding spirit of Prussian policy. After the great war of 1870 he was made a prince of the Empire he had helped to create. He retired from the position of prime-minister in 1890.

74. *What has been the course of recent events in Spain?*—In 1868, Queen Isabella was driven from the throne by a general revolt, and in 1870, Amadeo, son of the king of Italy, was chosen king. Finding the task of governing constitutionally hopeless, Amadeo resigned in 1873. For two years Spain was the scene of bloodshed and anarchy; but at the end of 1874 order was restored, and Alfonso, son of the ex-queen Isabella, born in 1886, will, if he lives, become king.

75. *What was the issue of the war between Russia and Turkey in 1877-78?*—Russia, provoked by the misgovernment of the Christian and Slavonic provinces of Turkey, declared war against the Porte, and utterly defeated the Turks. The Great Powers sanctioned, by the Treaty of Berlin, some important changes. Servia, Roumania, and Montenegro were recognised as independent; they and Greece were to receive additional territory at the expense of Turkey; and Russia obtained certain districts.

76. *Give some account of the war between Great Britain and Afghanistan, 1878-80.*—Shere Ali, Ameer of Afghanistan, having refused to receive a British mission, war was declared

against him ; and, after some sharp fighting, a treaty was signed. But in September the new British Resident at Cabul and his staff were killed. Cabul was occupied, the English troops being, save on one occasion, very successful ; and Abdurrahman, Shere Ali's cousin, having been made Ameer, they began to be withdrawn towards the end of 1880.

77. *Mention some of the facts connected with the Zulu War in South Africa.*—Cetewayo, king of the Zulus, having refused all demands made upon him, and assembled a corps of fighting men near the frontiers of Natal, General Lord Chelmsford, in January 1879, received orders to protect British territory. In the war which followed, he met with some reverses, especially at Isandlana ; but the power of the Zulu king was broken in the battle of Ulundi, on July 4. Cetewayo was captured by the British ; was restored, under certain limitations, in 1883 ; and died in the following year.

78. *What has lately occurred in the Transvaal ?*—This South African Republic, occupied by Boers of Dutch descent, was annexed by Great Britain in 1877. The Boers rose in insurrection in 1880 ; and after some fighting, in which they had the best of it, their claim to complete self-government was agreed to by Britain, though they still recognise the Queen's suzerainty.

79. *What was the course of the Egyptian War of 1882 ?*—Arabi Pasha, an Egyptian officer, in defiance of the authority of the Khedive, had assumed a kind of military dictatorship, and began to strengthen the fortifications of Alexandria, when British and French war-vessels appeared. The British admiral demanded that work should be stopped, but Arabi persisted, and the forts were bombarded by British vessels, after an atrocious massacre of Europeans had taken place. A British military expedition followed, when Arabi's army was finally defeated at Tel-el-Kebir, and the authority of the Khedive was again restored. Britain proceeded to reorganise the institutions of Egypt. It was agreed that Egypt should withdraw from her recent acquisitions in the Soudan, retaining only the shore of the Red Sea ; and General Gordon was sent to Khartoum as British representative. Here, however, he was beleaguered by an army of fanatical insurgents under a religious impostor known as the Mahdi, and massacred, along with his garrison, before he could be reached by the British relief expedition in 1885, under Lord Wolseley. He had held the city with the most heroic courage for about ten months, against enemies without and traitors within the walls.

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Edinburgh:

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CHAMBERS'S

MISCELLANEOUS QUESTIONS.

Astronomy.

1. *State the origin or Great First Cause of all things—* God, the Creator and Preserver, by whose good Providence we live, and move, and have our being.

2. *What is the term ordinarily employed to signify the Creator and His works?*—A common expression is Nature ; we also speak of the **Laws of Nature**.

3. *How can we learn what are the Laws of Nature?*—By studying various branches of science, such as Astronomy, Natural Philosophy, Botany, Zoology, Chemistry, and the like.

4. *What does astronomy teach?*—The nature and motions of the heavenly bodies, including our Earth.

5. *Is that an ancient science?*—Yes ; but it has been greatly improved in modern times.

6. *What were the notions generally entertained among ancient nations respecting the heavenly bodies?*—Anciently it was believed that the earth was a fixed body, around which the sun, planets, and stars revolved at different distances.



Solar System.

7. *What has been found to be the true explanation?*—That the sun is a central body, round which the earth and other planets revolve, the whole forming the Solar System.

8. *How many planets are there?*—More than a hundred; the principal ones are eight in number—namely, Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, and Neptune.

9. *What are the planets?*—Like the earth, they are all thought to be worlds, deriving light and heat from the sun.

10. *Are the eight principal planets all of one size?*—No; they greatly differ in size—Jupiter is the largest.

11. *Are the stars in our solar system?*—No; they are situated far beyond it.

12. *What are the stars?*—The stars are suns, at an inconceivable distance from the earth, and are believed to have planets revolving round them.

13. *How do we know a planet from a star?*—The planets shine with a steady lustre, while the stars twinkle.

14. *Mention another distinction.*—The planets are seen to change their places among the other heavenly bodies, but the stars have seemingly each a fixed place in the heavens, and are accordingly called fixed stars.

15. *Is it not usual to call the planets stars?*—In a general or wide sense, all the smaller heavenly bodies are called stars.

16. *Give an example.*—Venus is spoken of as a morning or evening star, according to the time of its appearance ; and the same is said of Jupiter.

17. *Are the planets distinguishable by any particular colour?*—Venus is a pure sparkling white ; Mercury, a dullish blue ; Saturn, a reddish tinge ; Mars, a fiery red ; Jupiter, white. The most brilliant of the whole are Venus and Jupiter.

18. *Why do we not see the stars during the day?*—Because they are lost in the blaze of sunlight.

19. *How are the stars arranged?*—For convenience of description, astronomers group them in constellations.

20. *Mention a well-known constellation.*—The cluster of stars called Ursa Major, or the Great Bear, but which is familiarly known as the Plough.

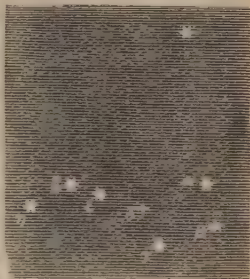
21. *Where is the constellation Ursa Major seen?*—In the northern part of the heavens.

22. *Mention another constellation.*—There is one called Orion, from a fabulous hero of antiquity ; three stars in a straight line in this constellation are called Orion's Belt.

23. *Is there any other noted constellation?*—One, consisting of four stars, is called the Southern Cross, but it is not seen in the northern part of the world.

24. *How can we learn the names and situations of the constellations?*—By studying celestial globes and maps on which they are pictured.

25. *There is a star called the North or Pole Star ; how do we know it?*—The North Star is situated nearly due north, and is nearly in line with two stars in the Great Bear or Plough, usually called the Pointers.



The Constellation of the Plough, and North Star.

26. *Of what service is the north star?*—At night it is useful in guiding travellers and mariners, by shewing them the northerly direction.

27. *Which is the largest and brightest of all the stars?*—Sirius, otherwise called Canicula or the Dog-star.

28. *Where is Sirius situated?*—In the constellation Canis Major, or the Great Dog, below the feet of Orion.

29. *What was at one time believed respecting the Dog-star?*—That it caused particularly hot weather for a number of days in summer, which, from that circumstance, were called the Dog-days.

30. *Is that belief exploded?*—Entirely so. People yet speak familiarly of the Dog-days ; but it is now known that though the star appears in summer, it has no influence on the weather.

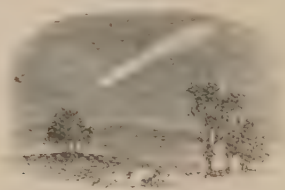
31. *A broad white streak is seen in the sky at night ; what is it called?*—It is called the Galaxy or Milky-way.

32. *Of what does it consist?*—The Milky-way is composed of stars, but at so remote a distance that they appear only as a luminous haze in the firmament.

33. *What is meant by firmament?*—It is a term signifying the vast expanse of sky visible from the earth.

34. *Is there any other phrase employed?*—Yes ; we say ‘the canopy of heaven,’ from its resemblance to a great rounded canopy overhead.

35. *What is the colour of the firmament?*—In clear weather it appears to be blue ; but the blueness is chiefly an effect of vapour in the air ; for the drier the air is, the blue is always the darker ; and, in very dry climates, and on the tops of high mountains, it becomes almost black.



A Comet.

36. *What does the solar system include besides the planets?*—It includes comets, and also satellites.

37. *What is the appearance of comets?*—A comet usually resembles a star with a long streaming tail.

38. *Are there many comets?*—There are many hundreds, but they are seldom seen from the earth.

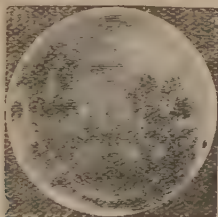
39. *What is the motion of comets?*—They travel in all directions; sometimes approaching the sun, and at other times going far into space.

40. *What is their nature?*—They are generally composed of a light matter, through which the stars can be seen.

41. *When comets appear, do they injuriously affect the earth?*—They are not found to do any injury, and are believed to fulfil some useful purpose in creation.

42. *What are satellites?*—They are bodies attending on or revolving round planets.

43. *Are there many satellites?*—Our earth has one, Mars has two (discovered in 1877), Jupiter has four, Saturn eight, Uranus four, and Neptune has one.



The Moon, photographed.*

44. *What do we call our satellite?*—The Moon.

45. *Is not the sun, as a central body, very much larger than any of the planets?*—Yes; very much larger. It is one million four hundred thousand times greater than the earth.

46. *What is the size of the earth?*—Its diameter at the equator is 7925 miles, and its circumference or girth is 24,900 miles.

47. *What is the earth's distance from the sun?*—Nearly ninety-two millions of miles.

48. *What is the size of the moon?*—Its diameter is only 2160 miles, or little more than a fourth of the diameter of the earth.

49. *What is the shape of the earth?*—It is a round ball or globe, shaped like an orange, being a little thicker when measured across the equator than from pole to pole.

50. *Has it the appearance of a globular body?*—No; to ordinary observation it appears like a level plain.

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51. *How do we know it is round?*—By looking to the sea on a clear day, when we see the tops of approaching vessels first appear, and gradually the lower parts.

52. *Standing on the shore, how far can you see along the surface of the ocean?*—At most from eight to nine miles.

53. *Are all the planetary bodies round?*—Yes; they are all globular in form, and so are the satellites.

54. *What sustains the planets in the heavens?*—They are sustained in their appointed courses by two contending forces, one drawing them towards the sun, and the other urging them in a direction that would carry them away from the sun.

55. *How were these forces impressed on them?*—These forces were impressed on them by the Creator, and are among the most wonderful of His works.

56. *Give an example of the drawing forces.*—When an object falls to the ground, it is because the earth, as the larger body, draws the small one to it.

57. *What is this drawing force usually called?*—It is called gravitation.

58. *Give an example of the other force.*—When a carriage-wheel goes rapidly round on a wet day, it throws sparks of dirt from it. In the same manner, a grinding-stone whirling in contact with water throws off a shower of spray.

59. *What is this repelling force ordinarily called?*—It is called centrifugal force—that is, the impulse to fly from the centre.

60. *Where in Scripture are we reminded that the earth is unsupported in empty space?*—Job, speaking of the power and goodness of God, says: ‘He hangeth the earth upon nothing.’

61. *How do gravitation and centrifugal force act in the case of the satellites?*—Just as the earth revolves round the sun, so do the satellites revolve round their respective planets.

62. *Explain how the sun appears to rise in the morning, to wheel over the earth, and set in the evening.*—This is only a deception of the senses; it is the earth that is in reality turning round, but we can neither see nor feel it moving.

63. *Mention a familiar example of this kind of deception.*—When we are gliding smoothly along in a railway-train, we are apt to think that the fields and other objects are moving past us.

64. *But we speak of the sun rising and setting, and say the same thing of the moon.*—These are only convenient phrases ; all that is now meant by them is, that the sun or moon *seems* to rise and set.

65. *What are the motions of the earth ?*—The earth has two distinct motions ; it rotates on its own axis, and it revolves round the sun.

66. *What is meant by rotating on its axis ?*—That it goes round in the manner of a ball on a spindle.

67. *What time is occupied by this rotation ?*—Twenty-four hours, which form a day.

68. *What is this motion ordinarily called ?*—The diurnal motion.

69. *Describe the diurnal motion.*—The diurnal motion is from west to east. In the morning, the darkened portion of the earth turns towards the sun, which then seems to rise, and daylight ensues. In the evening, that part of the earth which was in the west sinks in the east, and there is darkness by the apparent setting of the sun.

70. *Then, the sun is always shining on some part of the earth ?*—Yes ; the sun lights up different parts in turn ; when it is morning with us, it is evening somewhere else ; when we are sleeping in the darkness of night, others are in the blaze of noonday.

71. *What is signified by noon ?*—Twelve o'clock at mid-day, when the part of the earth we are upon is most fully opposite the sun.

72. *What is that position of the sun relative to our part of the earth called ?*—The sun is said to be on our meridian.

73. *What length of time does the revolution of the earth round the sun occupy ?*—365 days, 5 hours, 48 minutes, and 49 seconds, which form a solar year.

74. *What is caused by the annual revolution ?*—The change of seasons, Spring, Summer, Autumn, and Winter, according to the relative position of the earth and the sun at different periods.

75. *What is meant by the orbit of the earth ?*—It is the path which it traverses in its annual revolution.

76. *What is the form of this orbit ; is it a circle or an oval ?*—The earth's orbit is of an oval form.

77. *In going round the sun, what is the posture of the earth ?*—

The earth's axis does not stand perpendicular to the plane in which its orbit lies, but has a slight obliquity or inclination ; it always, however, keeps nearly the same inclination, and for a long period points sensibly in the same direction.

78. *What is the consequence of this position of the earth's axis?*—That the several parts of the earth are more turned towards the sun at one part of the orbit than at another, and thus experience a change of seasons, and a difference in the length of days and nights.

79. *If the earth's axis were perpendicular to the plane of its orbit, what would ensue?*—There would be no change of seasons ; but a belt of the earth round the middle, between the two ends of the axis, would have perpetual summer ; while the parts towards the ends would suffer perpetual winter.

80. *What are the ends of the axis called?*—The North and South Poles.

81. *What is the meaning of the term pole?*—It is a Greek word, signifying a pivot or turning-point.

82. *What is the ecliptic?*—It is an imaginary circle which the sun appears to traverse in the heavens in the course of a year, in consequence of the earth's motion in its orbit.

83. *What is the equator?*—It is an imaginary line round the middle of the globe, midway between the two poles.

84. *How is the ecliptic situated with respect to the equator?*—The ecliptic crosses the equator in a slanting or oblique direction at two points, so that one half of it is to the north of the equator, and the other half to the south.

85. *What are the two crossing points called?*—The equinoxes, or equinoctial points ; because when the sun is in these points, the days and nights are equal all over the earth : this is on the 20th March and 23d September.

86. *How far does the sun ever recede north or south from the equator as he travels in the ecliptic?*—To a distance depending on the obliquity of the earth's axis, which is rather more than one-fourth of the distance of the equator from the pole.

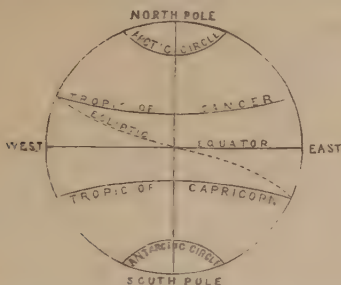
87. *How are these distances marked on globes and maps?*—By two lines or circles : the one to the north being called the Tropic of Cancer, and the one to the south the Tropic of Capricorn.

88. *What are the Arctic and Antarctic Circles?*—Two imaginary lines round the globe, at the same distance from the poles that the tropics are from the equator.

89. *How do these circles divide the earth's surface?*—Into five regions, called zones, distinguished by differences of climate.

90. *Which is the warmest region?*—That lying between the two tropics, called the torrid zone.

91. *Explain the reason.*—Because the sun's path lies within the region of the heavens exactly opposite; twice a year he is



exactly overhead, and is never vertically above any other part of the earth's surface; so that his rays, here falling perpendicularly, or nearly so, give the earth the full benefit of their heat.

92. *In what parts of the earth is the temperature generally most moderate?*—In the two belts called the Temperate Zones, lying on opposite sides of the torrid zone, and between it and the polar circles.

93. *Why?*—Because the rays of the sun always fall obliquely, and thus produce less heat than in the torrid zone.

94. *What are the regions within the Arctic and Antarctic Circles called?*—The Polar Regions, or Frigid Zones.

95. *Why?*—Because as the earth goes round in its annual motion, the obliquity of its axis causes each pole to be completely turned away from the sun, so that the sun never rises for months together, and during the whole of this period the climate is intensely cold. However, for a few months annually, the poles are constantly turned towards the sun, so that it never sets.

96. *Is there not great heat during the time that the sun never sets?*—No; for it only goes round and round the lower part of the sky, and never rises high enough to produce much effect, or be able to melt the ice and snow formed during the long winter.

97. *There is an imaginary belt or zone in the heavens embracing the ecliptic, what is it called?*—It is called the Zodiac.

98. *How has the zodiac been represented?*—It has been divided into twelve parts, each marked by a sign or pictorial figure, representing a constellation.

99. *What are the signs of the zodiac?*—They are known by Latin names—Aries, Taurus, Gemini, Cancer, Leo, Virgo, Libra, Scorpio, Sagittarius, Capricornus, Aquarius, Pisces.



The Signs of the Zodiac.

100. *These names have been translated and put into rhyme, for the sake of fixing them in the memory. Repeat the rhyme.*

The Ram, the Bull, the heavenly Twins,
And next the Crab the Lion shines,
The Virgin and the Scales,
The Scorpion, Archer, and He-Goat,
The Man who holds the watering-pot.
And Fish with glittering tails.

101. *What is the use of these signs of the zodiac?*—They serve to indicate the apparent situation of the sun in the heavens at any particular time of the year; we speak of the sun entering Aries, and so on.

102. *What is the substance of the moon?*—It is believed to consist of rocks and other opaque materials.

103. *If the moon be opaque, how should it give any light?*—It gives only a reflected light, or a portion of that which it receives from the sun shining upon it.

104. *What are the dark and luminous streaks and spots in the moon?*—They are mountains, valleys, and shadows. The more brilliant parts are the mountain-tops; the darker streaks are the deep valleys.

105. *Is the moon believed to be inhabited?*—No.

106. *What are the motions of the moon?*—It has three

motions ; it revolves on its own axis ; it revolves round the earth ; and, along with the earth, it revolves round the sun.

107. *What space of time does it take to revolve on its axis ?—*Exactly the time it takes to revolve round the earth ; 28 days, 7 hours, 43 minutes, and 11 seconds.

108. *What is this time called ?—*A lunar month, from *luna*, a Latin word for the moon.

109. *What is the result of the moon taking the same time to go round on its axis as to revolve round the earth ?—*That we never see more than one side of it.

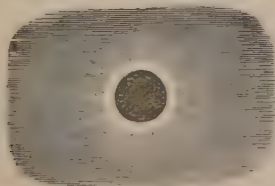
110. *What else is remarkable about the moon ?—*Its changes of appearance, or phases, in its monthly circuit.

111. *State the chief phases of the moon.—*At new moon it is invisible ; it appears as a half-moon at the end of the first, full moon at the end of the second, decreasing to half-moon at end of the third, and disappearing at the end of the fourth quarters.

112. *What is its appearance during its first and last quarters ?—*It has an elegant crescent-like appearance.

113. *What is that dim appearance of a moon which is sometimes seen lying within the crescent of new-moon ?—*The darkened part of the moon faintly visible by the sunlight reflected from the earth upon it.

114. *What causes an eclipse of the moon ?—*The interception of the sun's light by the earth ; the darkness which creeps over the moon being the earth's shadow.



An Annular Eclipse of the Sun.

115. *What causes an eclipse of the sun ?—*The passing of the moon between the earth and the sun.

116. *To what extent do eclipses vary ?—*Sometimes they are very partial, as when only the edge of the moon or sun is darkened ; and sometimes they are complete.

117. *What is an annular eclipse of the sun ?—*When the moon covers the face of the sun, excepting the edge all round, so as to leave a ring of light.

118. *Why is it called annular?*—From *annulus*, the Latin word for a ring.

119. *Do the moon, planets, and stars exercise any influence over human affairs?*—No; eclipses and certain positions of the planets were at one time thought to portend good or evil; but all such notions are found to be visionary.

120. *Was there not a class of persons who pretended to tell fortunes by the stars?*—Yes; they were called *Astrologers*. In the present day no intelligent person believes in fancies of this kind.

121. *Has the moon any influence over insanity?*—Formerly there was a belief to that effect, and hence the term *lunacy*; now this belief is abandoned, though the words *lunacy* and *lunatics* remain in use.

Geography.

1. *What is taught by Geography?*—A knowledge of the surface of the earth.

2. *What is the extent of the earth's surface?*—About 200,000,000 of square miles, about two-thirds of which are occupied by water, leaving only one-third for dry land.

3. *Into what is the land divided?*—Into continents and islands.

4. *What are continents?*—Very large stretches of land, of which there are strictly only two—one comprising Europe, Asia, and Africa, and the other consisting of North and South America. But it is customary to regard Europe, Asia, Africa, and the two Americas as separate continents.

5. *What are islands?*—Portions of land, of lesser or greater size, surrounded by water.

6. *Mention some of the principal islands?*—Australia, Tasmania, New Zealand, Ceylon, Borneo, Java, Mauritius, New Guinea, Madagascar, Cuba, Jamaica, Madeira, Great Britain, Ireland, Newfoundland, and Iceland.

7. *Into what are the waters on the globe divided?*—Into oceans, seas, lakes, and rivers.

8. *What is an ocean?*—A large extent of sea.

9. *Give some examples.*—The sea which separates Europe and Africa from America is called the Atlantic Ocean; America is divided from Asia by a larger sea, called the Pacific Ocean; and there are also the Northern and Southern, and Indian Oceans.

10. *Give some examples of seas?*—The Mediterranean, which lies between the south of Europe and Africa; the Red Sea,

MAP OF THE WORLD.



which lies between a part of Africa and Asia ; and the Baltic, which lies in the north of Europe.

11. *What is a portion of land nearly surrounded by water called?*—A peninsula.

12. *What is a point of land jutting out into the sea called?*—A cape or promontory.

13. *What is a bend of the sea into the land called?*—A bay or gulf.

14. *What is a narrow connecting portion of sea called?*—A strait or channel.

15. *Mention some of the features of the land.*—Mountains, hills, plains, and valleys.

16. *Name some well-known mountains.*—The Alps, which bound the north of Italy ; the Pyrenees, between France and Spain ; the Rocky Mountains, in North America ; the Andes, in South America ; and the Himalaya Mountains, in India.

17. *What is a hemisphere?*—A hemisphere is half a globe. On maps the globe is usually represented in two hemispheres—the Eastern Hemisphere, in which are Europe, Asia, and Africa ; and the Western Hemisphere, in which are North and South America.

18. *What enables us to tell the position of any place on the globe?*—A knowledge of its latitude and longitude.

19. *Explain degrees of latitude.*—The earth, from each side of the equator to the pole, has been divided into 90 spaces, called degrees of latitude—90 north and 90 south.

20. *What is the extent of one of these degrees?*—About $69\frac{1}{2}$ English miles.

21. *How are these degrees marked on maps?*—By lines drawn parallel to the equator, with figures at their extremities stating the degree of each.

22. *How is a degree divided?*—Into minutes and seconds.

23. *What are degrees of longitude?*—They are spaces reckoning east and west.

24. *From what point are degrees of longitude measured?*—In the United Kingdom they are measured from Greenwich, near London—so many to the east, and so many to the west.

25. *Give an example in defining the situation of a place.*—Edinburgh is situated in 55 degrees, 57 minutes, 20 seconds north latitude ; and 3 degrees, 10 minutes, 30 seconds west longitude.

26. *Mention a shorter way of expressing degrees, minutes, and seconds.*—Certain markings are used—as a small ° for degrees, a single point ' for minutes, and two points " for seconds.

27. *Where is this kind of measurement of special service?*—It is of great service to mariners in performing voyages across the ocean. By knowing the exact latitude and longitude of their ship, they are able to steer their course to the desired port.

28. *How can they tell where they are?*—By astronomical observations taken by means of certain instruments.

29. *What instrument used by mariners always points northwards?*—The Mariner's Compass, which consists of a magnetised needle or slip of metal poised so as to turn freely in all directions.



The Mariner's Compass.

30. *What makes the needle point northwards?*—An attractive influence exercised by the earth, the cause of which remains one of the mysteries of nature.

31. *How many points are there in the mariner's compass?*—There are four cardinal points, North, South, East, and West; and twenty-eight intermediate points, such as north-east, north-west, and so on.

32. *Does the needle point due north?*—No; it points a little west of north, and shifts in a manner necessary to be known by sailors.

33. *How are the cardinal points situated on a map?*—The upper part of the map is the north; west is on our left, and east on our right hand; and south is at the bottom.

34. *What do maps usually represent?*—They shew countries with their principal mountains, rivers, cities, and towns; also the ocean-boundaries of the greater divisions of the globe.

35. *What is the largest river in the world?*—The Amazon, in South America, which is 4000 miles long and 150 miles broad at the mouth, and which is navigable for 3360 miles.

36. *Mention some large rivers in North America.*—The Mississippi, Missouri, Ohio, and St Lawrence are well known for their vast size, but there are many others.

37. *Mention two well-known rivers in Ireland.*—The Shannon and the Liffey.

38. *Mention some beautiful lakes in Ireland.*—The Lakes of Killarney.

39. *What are the principal rivers in Europe?*—The Rhine, Rhone, Danube, Seine, Volga, Don, Dnieper, Elbe, and Tagus.

40. *What are the principal rivers in Great Britain?*—The Thames, Severn, Humber, Tyne, Mersey, Tweed, Clyde, and Tay ; but all these are insignificant in comparison with the great American rivers.

41. *Mention some large lakes in North America.*—Superior, Huron, Michigan, Erie, and Ontario.

42. *Mention some grand falls of water in North America.*—The Falls of Niagara.

43. *What is the nature of the water of the ocean?*—The water of the ocean, and all the seas connected with it, is salt, and unfit for drinking ; by evaporation, table-salt is made from it.

44. *How deep is the ocean?*—In the Atlantic and several other places, the ocean is some miles in depth ; it generally becomes shallow towards the shore.

45. *Is the ocean at rest?*—No ; the ocean and the seas and bays connected with it are constantly agitated by tides.

46. *Explain the nature of the tides.*—They consist of an alternate rising and falling of the water. In rising, the water is said to *flow*, and in falling to *ebb* ; it flows and ebbs twice in about twenty-five hours.

47. *Are the tides regular in their action?*—No ; in the space of about fifteen days there is a particularly high or *spring* tide, and a very low or *neap* tide.

48. *What causes the tides?*—The combined action of the sun and moon, but more particularly the moon.

49. *Does the water rise equally high everywhere at the same time?*—No ; the tides begin to rise in the ocean, and reach the lesser seas and bays, later according to circumstances ; but there is this remarkable thing about the tides, that when it is high water at a place on one side of the globe, it is high water at the place exactly opposite to it on the other.

50. *What sea is noted for having very little tide?*—The Mediterranean, in consequence of the narrow inlet from the ocean at the Straits of Gibraltar.

51. *What agitates the ocean besides the tides?*—The ocean is much affected by winds, and also by currents which flow in different directions.

52. *Mention a remarkable current.*—The Gulf Stream, which flows from the Gulf of Mexico on the coast of America. It divides into two currents, one of which flows towards the north-western shores of Europe, and, by its warmth, greatly modifies the severity of winter.

53. *When opposite currents meet or encounter rocks, what ensues?*—Whirlpools, which are in some places dangerous to mariners.

54. *Mention two remarkable and dangerous whirlpools.*—Charybdis in the Straits of Sicily, and the Mälstrom on the coast of Norway.

55. *Has any nation an exclusive property in the ocean?*—No; it is the common property of mankind, all being free to use it.

56. *Does this common right extend over all seas and bays to the shore?*—No; according to a generally acknowledged law, every country having a seaboard exercises a right of property and jurisdiction over the sea within three miles of the shore.

57. *What has regulated the division of the earth into separate countries?*—Such division has mostly arisen from the conquest of one people over another, but also from their peaceful settlement.

58. *What constitutes a nation?*—A group of people who are mostly of the same origin, speak the same language, and live under a distinct form of government.

59. *What are the principal countries in Europe?*—The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, Switzerland, Belgium, Holland, Austria, Prussia, Germany, which consists of several states, Denmark, Sweden and Norway, Russia, Turkey, and Greece.

60. *Does each of these comprehend only one nationality or race?*—It is not altogether so.

61. *Give an example.*—The United Kingdom comprehends England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, all differing somewhat, but now happily blended as regards a common interest and government. Within Germany, Russia, and several other countries, there are similar distinctions.

62. *What is a city called which contains the seat of government?*—The capital, or metropolis.

63. *What is the capital of the United Kingdom?*—London.

64. *What is the capital of France?*—Paris.

65. *Mention some other capitals.*—Madrid, of Spain ; Lisbon, Portugal ; Rome, Italy ; Berne, Switzerland ; Brussels, Belgium ; Amsterdam, Holland ; Vienna, Austria ; Berlin, Prussia and the German Empire ; Copenhagen, Denmark ; Stockholm and Christiania, of Sweden and Norway respectively ; St Petersburg, Russia ; Constantinople, Turkey ; Athens, Greece.

66. *What is the highest mountain in Europe?*—Mont Blanc, which rises to a height of 15,781 feet.

67. *What are the principal seaport towns in England?*—Liverpool, Bristol, Southampton, Hull, and Newcastle.

68. *The chief naval stations?*—Portsmouth, Plymouth, and Chatham.

69. *The chief manufacturing towns?*—Manchester, Preston, Leeds, Bradford, Sheffield, Birmingham, and Newcastle-on-Tyne.

70. *The chief university towns?*—Oxford and Cambridge.

71. *The chief cathedral towns?*—Canterbury, York, Winchester, Gloucester, Salisbury, Lincoln, Lichfield, and Carlisle.

72. *What island lies south of England?*—The Isle of Wight.

73. *Where is Wales situated?*—West of England.

74. *What is its general character?*—Wales, usually divided into North and South Wales, is mountainous and picturesque.

75. *Where is Scotland situated?*—North from England, from which it is divided chiefly by the river Tweed and Cheviot Hills.

76. *How do we distinguish the leading divisions of Scotland?*—As consisting of the Highlands and Lowlands.

77. *Where are the Highlands situated?*—In the north-west of Scotland. They form a mountainous and picturesque region.

78. *What islands lie west of Scotland?*—The Hebrides, or Western Isles.

79. *What islands lie north of Scotland?*—The islands of Orkney and Shetland.

80. *Mention some of the cities and towns in Scotland.*—

Edinburgh, the ancient capital ; Glasgow, a large commercial and manufacturing city ; Perth, Dundee, Aberdeen, and Inverness ; also Leith and Greenock, seaports.

81. *What is the district of Scotland adjacent to the boundary of England called ?*—The Scottish Border.

82. *What are lakes called in Scotland ?*—Lochs.

83. *Mention two of the more beautiful of these lochs.*—Lochs Katrine and Lomond.

84. *What is the highest mountain in Great Britain ?*—Ben Nevis, in the Highlands of Scotland.

85. *What is the height of Ben Nevis ?*—4406 feet.

86. *Where is Ireland situated ?*—West from England, from which it is separated by St George's Channel and the Irish Sea.

87. *What is the general character of Ireland ?*—That of a green and fertile island, with a mild climate.

88. *What island lies between England and Ireland ?*—The Isle of Man.

89. *Mention some of the cities and towns in Ireland.*—Dublin, the ancient capital ; Cork, Waterford, Limerick, Belfast, and Londonderry.

90. *What foreign possessions pertain to the United Kingdom ?*—The more important are the Dominion of Canada, with Newfoundland, in North America ; the West Indies ; Cape Colony, and Natal, in Southern Africa ; Australia, and New Zealand ; also India, with Ceylon.

91. *Which are the principal countries in Asia ?*—Asiatic Russia, Tartary, Persia, Japan, Hindustan, China, and Asiatic Turkey.

92. *What is another name given to Hindustan ?*—India.

93. *In what part of Asia is India situated ?*—In the south, where it forms a large peninsula.

94. *How is India governed ?*—The greater portion being now a foreign possession of the United Kingdom, is under British rule, with the chief seat of government at Calcutta. Two other important cities in India are Bombay and Madras.

95. *Name a large river in India.*—The Ganges.

96. *What large island lies near the southern coast of India ?*—Ceylon.

97. *How is Asia usually spoken of ?*—As the East, from being situated to the east of Europe.

98. *What are the Asiatics or people of Asia sometimes called ?*

—Orientals, from the Latin word *oriens*, rising ; by which is meant the country in which the sun seems to rise.

99. *What kind of country is China?*—It is very large and populous, and noted for the production of tea, which is exported in great quantities.

100. *What country of note is included in Asiatic Turkey?*—Syria.

101. *For what is Syria remarkable?*—It was the scene of events mentioned in Scripture history ; its principal city is Jerusalem.

102. *What is the most interesting country in Africa?*—Egypt, which is remarkable for its early history and antiquities.

103. *What river flows through Egypt?*—The Nile, which every year overflows its banks, and renders the soil richly productive.

104. *Of what race are the natives of Africa?*—They are mostly negroes, and are in general in a barbarous condition.

105. *How far distant is the continent of America from Europe?*—About three thousand miles.

106. *Why is America sometimes called the New World?*—Because it was not discovered till about the end of the fifteenth century.

107. *Who were its discoverers?*—Christopher Columbus, Sebastian Cabot, and Amerigo Vespucci, from the last of whom it was named.

108. *Of what extent is America?*—It consists of two great stretches of land, called North and South America, unitedly extending several thousand miles.

109. *What unites these?*—A long narrow neck of land, called the Isthmus of Darien.

110. *What are the principal countries in North America?*—Canada and other British possessions, the United States, and Mexico.

111. *What are the principal countries in South America?*—Peru, Chili, Paraguay, Guiana, and Brazil, the Argentine Confederation, and Bolivia.

112. *In what respect do the people of North and South America chiefly differ?*—Excepting Mexico, the people of North America are mostly of English origin, while those of South America, and also of Mexico, are generally of Spanish or Portuguese extraction.

113. *What are the principal cities in North America?*—New

York, Philadelphia, Washington, Boston, St Louis, Cincinnati, Richmond, New Orleans, Toronto, Montreal, and Quebec—these last three being in Canada.

114. *What city is the seat of government of the United States?*—Washington, in the District of Columbia.

115. *What is meant by the West Indies?*—A series of islands, the larger of which are Cuba, St Domingo, and Jamaica.

116. *Where are the West Indies situated?*—In the broad bend of the Atlantic, between North and South America.

117. *What is reckoned to be the population of the whole world?*—1460 millions of people, about 318 millions of whom belong to Europe.

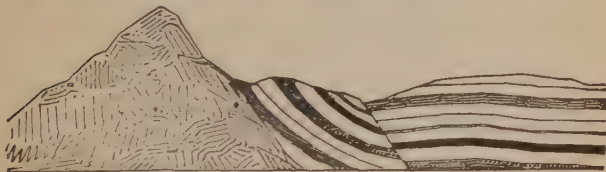
Geology—Mineralogy.

1. *What is meant by Geology?*—The science which is concerned with the structure of the earth's crust.

2. *Explain what is meant by the earth's crust.*—The outward portion of the globe, which is composed of rocks, beds of clay, sand, and other substances.

3. *Do the whole of these substances lie in confused heaps?*—No; they are found to lie in a certain order or arrangement.

4. *What do we gather from a study of these circumstances?*—We learn much of the past history of the globe, besides a knowledge of materials that are useful in the arts.



Unstratified Rocks.

Stratified Rocks.

5. *In what forms are rocks usually found?*—Some are found in layers or strata, one above another, and are said to be *stratified*; other rocks are in huge irregularly-shaped masses, and are said to be *unstratified*.

6. *What is thought to be the cause of these distinctions?*—

It is believed that stratified rocks were disposed in layers as a sediment from water, and therefore they are called *aqueous* or *sedimentary* rocks; while the unstratified were produced by the agency of fire, and are called *igneous*.

7. *What is sometimes a special condition of the igneous rocks?*—In certain circumstances they have been thrown up through openings and chinks, in which case they are called *volcanic*.

8. *What is the general character of unstratified rocks?*—They are hard and sparkling; one kind, well known for its beauty and durability, is called *granite*.

9. *Mention one of the volcanic kind.*—Basalt, which appears in columnar masses at the Giant's Causeway in Ireland, at Staffa in Scotland, and other places.

10. *Give the names of some of the stratified rocks.*—Clay-slate, limestone, sandstone, chalk-beds, and ironstone.

11. *What is found in some of the stratified rocks?*—The remains of plants and animals.

12. *How did these remains become incorporated in stratified rocks?*—While the rocks were forming by the settlement of loose materials in water, animals and plants became embedded in the deposit.

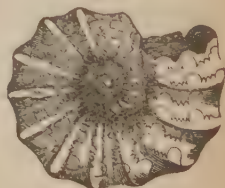
13. *Do these animal and vegetable remains retain their original form?*—Many of them do, but they have all been changed into stone, and in this condition are called *fossils*. *Palæontology*—a term from the Greek *palaïos*, old, and *logos*, a discourse—is the branch of geology which treats of this subject.

14. *What is learned from an examination of such remains?*—A knowledge of what kinds of animals and plants existed on the earth during a long course of past ages.

15. *Mention one of the larger-sized quadrupeds found in a fossilised state?*—The *Palæotherium*, which varied in bulk from that of a hog to a rhinoceros.



Palæotherium.



Ammonite.

16. *Mention a well-known fossil shell.*—The *Ammonite* shaped like a horn, and common in the south of England.

17. *How did the rocks which contain these animal remains become buried at depths below the surface of the Earth?*—The globe has undergone many convulsions, submerging some layers of rock, and bringing others towards the surface; and seas and land have, in course of time, changed places.

18. *How have mountains come to exist?*—In some instances, by the eruption of igneous rocks; in others, masses have been left prominent by some agency which has worn down or *denuded* the rest of the surface.

19. *Are there various agencies concerned in wearing down the surface?*—Yes; the air and running water are constantly wearing down and carrying away parts of the solid rocks. Ice, in the form of glaciers and icebergs, has also *denuded* the surface.

20. *How has sea-sand been formed?*—Sea-sand, like clay and various kinds of earth, is formed of the disintegrated materials of certain rocks.

21. *What produces the rounded stones found in the beds of rivers and elsewhere?*—Pieces of rock rounded by attrition.

22. *Explain this.*—The pieces of rock have been rolled about in water till the corners have been rubbed off.

23. *What are these rounded stones called?*—When large, they are called *boulders*, when smaller, pebbles, and when of a very small size, lying in beds, they are spoken of as gravel.

24. *What is meant by Silurian rocks?*—Strata of sedimentary rocks, many of them limestone, called Silurian, because found in a part of England where a people called the Silures once lived.

25. *What is conglomerate?*—Rocks or large stones composed of small and large pebbles firmly cemented together; such pebbles being the gravel of an early sea.

26. *What is another name for conglomerate?*—Pudding-stone, from its resemblance to the mixture in a plum-pudding.

27. *What are calcareous rocks?*—Those partaking of the nature of limestone, so called from *calx*, the Latin word for lime. Chalky and limey soils are said to be calcareous.

28. *What is marble?*—Marble is the name given to various kinds of limestone rocks, which admit of a fine polish; some varieties contain small fossilised plants and animals.

29. *What is 'Parian Marble'?*—A white variety of marble found in the island of Paros, in the *Ægean Sea*, and used by the ancient Greeks for their statues.

30. *What are siliceous rocks?*—Those partaking of the nature of flint, the Latin word for which is *silex*. Sandy soils are said to be siliceous.

31. *What is quartz?*—A white sparkling rock, in which gold is often found.

32. *What are downs?*—Large tracts where sand has accumulated in heaps, which are sometimes covered with grass.

33. *What is a clayey soil called?*—An aluminous or argillaceous soil.

34. *What is the origin of the word aluminous?*—Aluminous is from the Latin *alumen*, signifying alum, which is one of the bases of clay.

35. *What is the origin of the word argillaceous?*—Argillaceous is from the Latin *argilla*, signifying white clay.

36. *Besides silex, lime, and clay, what other substances are found in the soil?*—In most instances, the soil contains decayed vegetable or animal matter, with some other ingredients, the whole constituting the earth of gardens and fields.

37. *What is a delta?*—A triangular-shaped tract of land found at the mouth of some rivers, and so called from its resemblance to the Greek letter delta (Δ).

38. *What is meant by Mineralogy?*—The department of science which treats of minerals.

39. *What is meant by minerals?*—Minerals is the general name for all the different substances that make up the earth's crust, such as clay, sand, limestone and other rocks, flint, black-lead, salt, coal, and the like.

40. *What are ores?*—Ores are those minerals from which metals can be extracted by smelting.

41. *What is smelting?*—Roasting ores with fire, by which the pure metal flows from the earthy part of the mineral.

42. *What are the principal metals?*—Gold, silver, iron, lead, zinc, copper, tin, nickel, and antimony; but there are many others.

43. *Are all metals produced by smelting?*—All except gold, which is found in a pure state; also copper and silver, which are found pure in some places.

44. *What is coal?*—A dark-coloured, inflammable substance, properly called fossil-coal, because it is dug from the earth.

45. *Of what is fossil-coal composed?*—Chiefly of vegetable matter, compressed into a compact mass.

46. *How can vegetable matter have become sunk so as to form*

coal?—By the submergence of land in one of the convulsions which have caused the sea to rush in and cover the land.

47. *Of what species of vegetable matter does coal usually consist?*—Of forests of trees and ferns, upon the quality of which the richness of the coal depends.

48. *In digging for coal and other fossils, whether does it become cold or warm as we descend?*—It becomes the more hot the lower we descend into the earth.

49. *What belief is entertained from this fact?*—That the centre of the globe is in a state of very great heat.

50. *How is the central heat of the globe manifested on the surface?*—By volcanoes and hot mineral springs.

51. *What are volcanoes?*—Mountains which, through openings, occasionally throw up burning matter or lava, together with stones, ashes, and, in some instances, mud.



Mount Etna, in Sicily.

52. *What is the opening of a volcano called?*—The crater.

53. *How is the burning matter ejected from the crater?*—Sometimes it is thrown to a height in the atmosphere, accompanied with dense smoke; at other times, it flows as a stream of burning lava down the sides of the mountain, destroying fields and houses in its course.

54. *When the lava cools, what is its usual appearance?*—That of a hard black rock, but porous, or full of small holes.

55. *Are there many volcanoes?*—They are some hundreds in number.

56. *Which are the more remarkable in Europe?*—Etna in Sicily, Vesuvius in Italy, and Hecla in Iceland.

57. *In what part of the earth are volcanoes most numerous?*—In South America.

58. *Do volcanoes ever occur in the sea?*—Yes; they sometimes break out in the bed of the ocean, and throw up materials which form volcanic islands.

59. *Are there any extinct volcanoes?*—There are many such; some may be seen in Auvergne in France, with their craters, resembling great basins covered with green turf.

60. *What is the origin of the term volcano?*—It is from Vulcan, a heathen deity who was supposed by the ancients to reside under Mount Etna, engaged in forging thunderbolts for Jupiter.

61. *Why are certain springs called mineral springs?*—Because they contain a quantity of some soluble mineral, such as various kinds of salts, iron, and lime.

62. *What are the springs called that contain iron?*—Chalybeate springs, from *chalibis*, the Greek word for steel; they are also called ferruginous springs, from *ferrum*, the Latin word for iron.

63. *How are mineral substances imparted to springs?*—The water dissolves them in passing through rocks and other strata that contain them, and if the rocks are hot, the consequence is that the mineral water is warm.

64. *What is petroleum?*—Natural oil, which gushes in springs from the earth, and is sometimes spoken of as naphtha.

65. *Where are these oil-springs found?*—In Burmah and other parts of Asia, France, Italy, and North America.

66. *How is the oil formed in the earth?*—It is believed to be a result of the earth's internal heat acting on beds of a rich kind of coal. The heat may be said to distil the oil from the coal—perhaps first raising a gas, which is reduced to a liquid state by the pressure of the earth.

67. *Is petroleum or naphtha an object of manufacture?*—Yes, it has latterly been made from petroleum-coal, which is dug in Scotland; the oil so produced and refined being generally known as paraffin-oil, which is burned in lamps.

68. *What are geysers?*—Boiling springs in Iceland, in which the water is ejected in a column to a great height, the force being probably the steam generated low down by the heat.

69. *What are earthquakes?*—Disturbances in the crust of the earth, sometimes only slight tremblings, but at other times violent convulsions accompanied with loud noises.

70. *What is supposed to be the cause of earthquakes?*—Volcanic action, by which, according to geology, many changes have been effected on the surface of the globe.

71. *Is geology an ancient science?*—No; it is of comparatively modern origin, and new discoveries in it are constantly being made.

72. *Were ancient nations acquainted with mineralogy?*—Only in a limited way. They knew of certain ores which they worked for purposes of art.

73. *Substantiate that fact by a quotation from Scripture.*—In Deuteronomy, eighth chapter and ninth verse, it is said of the Hebrews, that they shall have ‘a land whose stones are iron, and out of whose hills thou mayest dig brass.’

74. *What is brass?*—A composition of copper and zinc.

75. *What is bronze?*—A composition of copper and tin.

76. *For what is bronze much used?*—Bronze is much employed in fabricating casts of statues and objects of an ornamental kind.

77. *What is pewter?*—A mixture of brass, lead, and tin.

78. *What is tinsmith's solder?*—A mixture of lead and tin.

79. *What are such composite metals called?*—They are called alloyed metals or alloys.

80. *Is the gold of coinage alloyed?*—Yes; it consists of about eleven parts of gold and one part of copper, the copper alloy being added to give hardness.

81. *How does the infusion of copper alter the colour of gold?*—It gives it a reddish tinge; if the mixture consists of gold and silver, the colour is a delicate yellow.

82. *Is there any metal mixed with the copper coinage of the United Kingdom?*—Yes; the copper coinage is a mixture of copper and nickel—the nickel giving great hardness.

83. *Was there not at one time a belief that the baser metals could be transmuted into gold?*—That strange belief was once entertained by a set of enthusiasts, who laboured to discover the art of making gold.

84. *What were those enthusiasts called?*—Alchemists.

85. *Although alchemists failed in gold-making, were their labours useless?*—No; the alchemists made a number of discoveries concerning the properties of matter, and so laid the foundation of the science of Chemistry.

Chemistry—Heat—Atmosphere— Sound.

1. *What is meant by Chemistry?*—The science which treats of the elementary properties of substances, and their changes.
2. *What did the ancients consider to be the Elements?*—They spoke of fire, air, earth, and water as the four elements.
3. *Were they right in saying so?*—No; fire is only an extreme condition of heat, air is a mixture of several elements, and so are earth and water.
4. *How many elementary substances are now known?*—Chemistry has made known about sixty.
5. *What is their nature?*—The greater number are metals; five are gases, or fluids in the form of air; the others can only be described as non-metallic. All the objects we see around us, including the air we breathe, are compounds of some of these elements.
6. *How have they been compounded?*—Such has been the work of nature—all has been adjusted in a scheme of comprehensive Beneficence.
7. *How are these compounds discovered?*—Practical chemists analyse them in their laboratories.
8. *What is Chemical Analysis?*—The disunion or separation of the elementary ingredients of a body.
9. *How is chemical analysis effected?*—By a great variety of ingenious operations, in many of which heat performs an important part.
10. *Have discoveries of this kind proved valuable?*—Exceedingly so. Besides extending a knowledge of nature, the discoveries of chemists have made known many useful medicines; also colouring matters and other preparations which are of great service to mankind.
11. *Mention some of these useful preparations.*—Soap for washing, which is made chiefly from the union of an alkali called soda with tallow. Another is carburetted hydrogen gas, which is extracted from coal, and used for lighting houses and towns.
12. *What is chemical affinity?*—The natural attraction of different kinds of matter for each other, by which they

combine to form another body ; water being an example of a combination of hydrogen with oxygen.

13. *What is chemical decomposition?*—The dissolving of bodies into their original elements.

14. *Where have we an example of this?*—In the dissolution of animal substances when buried in the earth.

15. *Is it possible to transform a liquid into a solid body?*—Yes ; for example, the syrup of the sugar-cane can be transformed into sugar, a solid dry article.

16. *In what manner does the liquid syrup assume this character?*—It crystallises.

17. *What is crystallisation?*—A spontaneous arrangement of particles into regular fixed shapes.

18. *Are there other instances of crystallisation?*—There are many such ; but none is so beautiful as that often seen in flakes of snow, which are of various regular forms.



Flakes of Snow, magnified.

19. *What is vitrification?*—The process of converting certain materials into glass by fusing them together by heat.

20. *What materials are used for the making of glass?*—Sand or flint, and some alkaline salts.

21. *Is the art of glass-making ancient?*—Yes ; but it is only in modern times that it has been brought to a high degree of perfection, as is seen in the finer kinds of crystal.

22. *Of what gases is the atmosphere composed?*—Chiefly nitrogen, with oxygen, and a small quantity of carbonic acid—the nitrogen is nearly four to one of the oxygen.

23. *But is not the oxygen the vital principle of the air?*—Yes ; but it needs a strong dilution of nitrogen ; oxygen, however, is the great supporter of animal life, and maintains combustion.

24. *Explain combustion.*—Combustion is the combining of some substances with oxygen, attended with red heat, and usually with flames, whence it follows that the fire will go out if deprived of oxygen. In blowing a fire, it is the rush of oxygen which is the true cause of the fierce blaze.

25. *What is the cause of rust in iron?*—Oxygen entering into

combination with the surface of the metal, the combination being promoted by moisture; rusting is an ordinary term for the oxidising of iron.

26. *Is the common air deteriorated by breathing?*—It is Pure air is chemically changed in the act of breathing, and what we exhale has lost its oxygen, and is loaded with carbonic acid gas.

27. *Is carbonic acid gas unwholesome?*—Inhaled, even in small quantity, it is very injurious to animal life; but, on the contrary, it supports vegetation.

28. *Where are the injurious effects of breathing bad air felt?*—In close rooms where several persons are sleeping or sitting this is a common cause of fevers and other illnesses.

29. *What is caloric?*—It is a term sometimes employed to signify heat, and is from the Latin word *calor*, heat; where anything produces heat, it is said to be *calorific*.

30. *What is latent heat?*—Heat which is concealed in a body, and does not manifest its presence under ordinary circumstances.

31. *Is the development of fire by friction, and by the striking of a flint on steel, a result of latent heat?*—No; that opinion was once entertained, but is now abandoned.

32. *What, then, produces the heat?*—It is supposed to be caused by the violent arresting or retardation of motion.

33. *Explain this more fully.*—Motion—as, for example, the motion of a wheel on an axle—being greatly retarded by friction, or suddenly arrested, as in the case of a steel striking a flint, heat is the consequence, and sparks of fire are probably produced.

34. *What do we feel in the absence of heat?*—The sensation of cold.

35. *What is frost?*—A very low degree of heat, which turns water to ice, and this begins to take place when the thermometer indicates thirty-two degrees.

36. *What is ice?*—Water frozen into a hard and compact mass. Certain fresh-water lakes in North America produce ice in perfection for the cooling of beverages.

37. *What is a thermometer?*—An instrument for measuring heat, consisting of a glass tube with mercury, which rises or falls according to the surrounding temperature.

38. *What is the scale of the thermometer?*—It consists of equal divisions, called degrees, made alongside the tube, and numbered from 0 or zero, at the bottom, to 212 at the top—32

degrees is the freezing-point, 98 blood-heat, and 212 the boiling-point.

39. *Is that the only scale?*—No ; on the continent of Europe other scales are employed ; but this, which is called the Fahrenheit thermometer, from the name of its constructor, is the one used in Great Britain, and chiefly referred to.

40. *What is meant by radiation of heat?*—The process by which heat is given off. Heat is radiated or sent off in rays from the sun, from a fire, or from any heated object.

41. *Does the absorption of heat in any way depend on colour?*—Yes. Black garments more readily absorb heat than those which are white.

42. *Where does this fact influence the mode of dressing?*—In India and other hot countries, where the natives dress themselves chiefly in light white garments.

43. *Does colour affect the radiation of heat?*—Yes ; a black surface gives off heat better than a light one ; for example, pipes for warming houses give off more heat when they are black than when they are light-coloured.

44. *What are bodies called which receive and convey heat readily?*—Good conductors of heat.

45. *Give an example of a good conductor of heat.*—Metals are good conductors, as is felt in the handle of a metal tea-pot, in which a piece of wood, as being a bad conductor of heat, has to be interposed.

46. *Do not woollen garments give warmth?*—It is a popular error to say they do ; they only, as being bad conductors of heat, keep the animal warmth from leaving us.

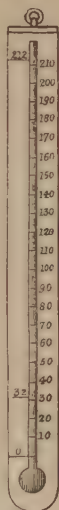
47. *At what temperature is water most dense?*—At about 40 degrees. When heat is applied, the water expands, and afterwards beginning to boil, flies off as steam.

48. *What takes place when the temperature of water sinks below 40 degrees?*—The water expands until it reaches 32 degrees, when it assumes the form of ice.

49. *How is the expansion of water in freezing familiarly exemplified?*—In the bursting of water-pipes during frost.

50. *What promotes evaporation?*—The heat of the sun, and artificial heat.

51. *Give an example of evaporation.*—When a wetted piece of



Thermometer.

cloth is hung out to dry, the moisture is exhaled or carried off by evaporation into the atmosphere.

52. *Does evaporation go on upon a great scale in nature?*—Yes; from sea and land, and from all animals, there is a constant exhalation, but more in hot than cold weather.

53. *What causes the moisture on the inside of glass-windows?*—The exhaled breath and other moisture is condensed on the glass in consequence of the cold outside.

54. *If it be very cold outside, what ensues?*—The moisture on the glass is frozen, and assumes a feathery appearance.

55. *Why do walls and paved passages inside of buildings sometimes have a damp appearance?*—Because their cold condenses the floating moisture in the atmosphere; this is seen in mild but moist weather.

56. *What is dew?*—The condensation of atmospheric moisture on blades of grass or other objects, during night.

57. *What is hoar frost?*—Dew frozen by cold.

58. *What becomes of all the moisture exhaled into the atmosphere?*—It forms fogs, mist, and clouds, which are only vapour condensed by cold, and so rendered visible.

59. *Why do fogs, mist, and clouds disappear in fine weather?*—They are dispelled by heat, their moisture resuming an invisible condition.

60. *Why does mist sometimes disappear suddenly while rolling along hills?*—The mist, in its passage, comes into a warmer atmosphere, and so vanishes.

61. *What is a common cause of fogs at sea?*—Sudden chilliness of the atmosphere, by which the exhaled vapour assumes the form of mist. When the sea happens to be of a mild temperature, the fogs become intense.

62. *When mists and clouds are not dispelled by heat, what usually ensues?*—They drop down as rain or snow.

63. *But why do heavy rains occur in warm as well as in cold weather?*—The reason is, that the atmosphere becomes oversaturated with moisture, and must necessarily yield it as rain.

64. *What is the use of rain?*—Rain is of the greatest value in irrigating and refreshing the earth, in supporting vegetation, and in supplying water for the use of man and the lower animals.

65. *What is snow?*—Particles of water frozen in the atmosphere; when rain-drops are frozen in falling, they form hail.

66. *Is frost of any particular use?*—It is of value in destroying hosts of insects and other vermin which would be injurious to vegetation ; also in mouldering down the hard clods of earth in newly-turned-up fields and gardens.

67. *Is snow of any use?*—When it lies one or two feet deep for any length of time, it shelters tender vegetation from the severity of frost, and is so far of service to agriculture.

68. *Does sea-water freeze?*—Yes ; but very slowly and imperfectly, and is seen chiefly in the polar regions.

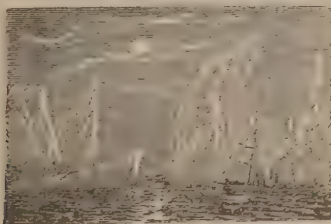
69. *Is the ice of sea-water salt?*—It is less so than sea-water ; in freezing, a portion of the saline particles is rejected.

70. *Is there any heat in ice?*—To the touch ice always conveys the sensation of extreme cold, but by the thermometer ice can be shewn to vary in having more or less heat like other bodies.

71. *Can ice be made to serve the purposes of glass?*—Yes ; when sawn into thin slabs, it may serve as glass for windows ; but this can take place only in excessively cold countries, where the rays of the sun are too feeble to overcome the frost.

72. *What are glaciers?*—Huge masses of ice and snow which slide down from lofty situations to valleys ; the word glacier is from *glace*, the French word for ice.

73. *What is meant by glacial action?*—It is a term used by geologists to signify the effect produced on the surface of rocks and mountain-sides by the grazing of glaciers during their descent ; the collection of gravel and other matter brought down by glaciers is called a *moraine*.



Icebergs.

74. *What are icebergs?*—Floating islands of ice, which are seen chiefly in the ocean in extreme northern and southern latitudes, and are very dangerous to navigators.

75. *Whence do icebergs come?*—From the polar regions, where they break off from the ends of glaciers that protrude into the ocean, and float about till they are gradually melted.

76. *Are there any means for discovering the approach of icebergs?*—One method consists in watching the fall of temperature in the atmosphere; for the icebergs absorb heat for a considerable distance.

77. *How high are the clouds?*—They float in the atmosphere from a few hundred feet to six miles above the surface of the Earth.

78. *Where are the greatest number of clouds?*—In hilly countries and over high mountain-ranges.

79. *Why should hills cause clouds?*—The cold tops of hills and mountains condense the floating moisture in the atmosphere into clouds; and as clouds produce rain, hilly countries are always the most rainy.

80. *Has there been any classification of clouds?*—Yes; for the sake of distinction they have been divided into several classes.

81. *Mention the names of the principal classes of clouds.*—The *Cirrus*, or thin feathery cloud on the blue sky; the *Cumulus*, or great heap of cloud, resembling a mass of white wool; and the *Stratus*, or general haze. These leading varieties are sometimes combined, producing the *Nimbus*, or dark, heavy rain-cloud.

82. *When is the nimbus seen in its most perfect form?*—During thunder-storms, when the atmosphere is densely overcast.

83. *What height does the atmosphere reach?*—It wraps round the whole Earth to the height of about forty-five miles.

84. *Is the atmosphere of uniform consistency?*—No; it is most dense at the lowest level, and grows gradually thinner as it ascends. At the height of seven miles it is too thin to be breathed.

85. *Why are the tops of high mountains perpetually covered with snow?*—Because the air is so thin at these heights that it cannot retain the heat; the consequence being snow and glaciers.

86. *Where does the air best retain the sun's heat?*—Where it is dense, and to a certain degree moist, and it is there that vegetables grow most luxuriantly.

87. *What is the pressure of the atmosphere?*—It presses with a weight equal to about fifteen pounds on every square inch.

88. *Is this pressure sustained by animals?*—All animals, including human beings, sustain this degree of pressure.

89. *Why do we not feel the pressure of the atmosphere?*—

Because it presses equally on all sides, and up as well as down ; the air in the cavities and small vessels of the body therefore acts as a spring pressing outward ; a balance of internal and external pressure is accordingly kept up, and we are unconscious of any weight being laid on us.

90. *Give familiar examples of the pressure of the atmosphere.*—When we cause a thimble to adhere to the hand by sucking the air from beneath it, the adhesion is the result of the pressure of the atmosphere on the exhausted space on the hand. The water in a glass fountain used for a bird-cage is kept from running out by the pressure of the atmosphere.

91. *What machine in ordinary use acts from the pressure of the atmosphere?*—The water-pump, which removes the air from the inside of the tube ; the pressure on the surface without then forces up the water within.

92. *What is the air-pump?*—It is a machine employed to pump or draw air from a glass vessel, producing a vacuum or empty space ; the glass vessel used for this purpose is called the *receiver*, because it receives objects to be operated on.

93. *Can air be compressed?*—Yes ; but to compress it great force is required, and it has a tendency to rend any vessel in which it is forcibly confined.

94. *What is the science which treats of the properties of the air?*—Pneumatics, from a Greek word signifying to breathe or blow.

95. *Is water in boiling affected in any way by atmospheric pressure?*—Yes. Near the level of the sea, water boils at the heat indicated by 212 degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer ; but at the top of a high hill the water will boil at a lower heat, because there the pressure of the atmosphere is less.

96. *At what heat does water boil at the top of Mont Blanc, which is nearly three miles high?*—At 189 degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer.

97. *What is the barometer?*—It is an instrument such as is here figured, and is employed for measuring the pressure of the atmosphere.

98. *What is its construction?*—There are several kinds of barometers. That in common use is a glass tube shut at the upper end, and having a bulb at the lower end, as in the figure, or the lower end open and dipped in a basin of mercury, the mercury rising thirty inches more or less in the tube, according to the weight of the atmosphere. The



height of the mercury is indicated by a scale along the side of the instrument.

99. *Why is this instrument called a weather-glass?*—Because the degree of pressure indicated is a token of the approaching state of the weather, such as fair, fine, rain, stormy.

100. *How is air altered by heat?*—It is expanded or rarefied, and so being rendered lighter, it ascends or floats upwards, while colder air descends to take its place.

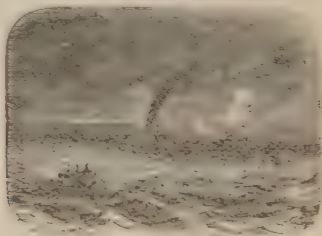
101. *How is this exemplified?*—By the rushing of the cold air, called draughts, into apartments where the air is much heated and rarefied.

102. *How is this shewn on a great scale in nature?*—By the blowing of winds, which are currents of air set in motion by fluctuations of temperature.

103. *What are the trade-winds?*—That is a name given by mariners to winds which blow steadily for months in particular parts of the tropical regions.

104. *What are tornados?*—They are fierce gales of wind which often cause great damage in the West Indies and other tropical regions.

105. *What are cyclones?*—A cyclone is a fierce gale, which blows in a wide circle, as a species of whirlwind, and causes much damage in its course; the central part within the circle being generally calm.



A Water-spout.

106. *What are water-spouts?*—They are tall columns of water and vapour, which are caused chiefly by whirlwinds.

107. *Where are water-spouts most frequently seen?*—At sea, from whence the lower part of the column is sucked up, and is joined to a part reaching from the clouds; such water-spouts are dangerous to mariners. When water-spouts break on the land, they cause great damage.

108. *If heated or rarefied air be confined in a light and thin bag, what ensues?*—When the bag is liberated from the hand it will ascend.

109. *Give an example?*—The soap-bubbles blown by a child—the globular light bubbles being bags full of warm or rarefied air.

110. *What is a balloon?*—A large bag of light silk, which ascends to great heights when filled with rarefied air, or a species of gas lighter than the atmosphere.

111. *Besides supporting animal and vegetable life, has the air any other use?*—It conveys sound.

112. *What is sound?*—Vibrations of the air conveyed to a membrane in the ear, from which an impression is communicated to the brain.

113. *At what rate of speed does sound reach the ear?*—Sound travels through the air at the rate of 1125 feet per second; the report of a gun fired at a mile's distance reaches us in from 4 to 5 seconds.

114. *Is sound conducted best along the land or water?*—It travels best along the surface of water, such as lakes and seas; it can also be well conducted along a tube.

115. *What is an echo?*—A sound reflected or sent back from the object on which it strikes.

116. *Where do echoes most commonly occur?*—In the neighbourhood of rocks, walls, and buildings.

117. *What is meant by acoustics?*—The term acoustics signifies the branch of science which treats of hearing and sound; it is from a Greek word signifying to hear.

118. *To whom is a knowledge of this science of special importance?*—To architects who plan churches and public halls; it being important that all such buildings should be constructed so as to enable speakers to be properly heard by an audience.



Light—Electricity—Magnetism.

1. *Mention the source of daylight?*—The sun.
2. *Does this light come instantaneously from the sun to the earth?*—No; it is found that light travels at the rate of a hundred and ninety-two thousand miles in a second; accordingly, the light of the sun takes eight minutes to reach the earth.
3. *Do rays of light proceed in a straight line?*—Only when they pass through empty space, or through a transparent body of uniform density.
4. *What ensues when the transparent body is of a varying density?*—Then, the rays are bent or turned aside, and are said to be *refracted*.
5. *When are rays of light said to be reflected?*—When they are sent back into the medium through which they came to meet the reflecting surface.
6. *Give an example of reflection.*—The light of the sun which is thrown on the moon, is reflected from its surface to the earth.
7. *Give other examples.*—In the evening after sunset, and in the morning, before sunrise, the rays of the sun strike on the particles of air and moisture in the upper part of the atmosphere, and are reflected towards us: this imperfect light is called the *twilight*.
8. *Why in some fine climates does it become suddenly cold when the sun sets?*—Because the air is too pure and dry to retain the heat which came from the sun.
9. *Does the light consist of purely white rays?*—They appear so to the eye when they are not broken up or refracted.
10. *Explain this more fully.*—If the rays of light are made to pass through a triangular piece of glass, called a prism, or other transparent substance, they are separated into seven colours shading into each other.
11. *Name the prismatic colours.*—Red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, and violet.
12. *Are all these colours primary or elementary?*—No; three only are primary, the others being derived from them. Formerly, red, yellow, and blue received the name; now, red, green, and violet are regarded as the primary colours.
13. *Where are the prismatic colours shewn beautifully in nature?*—In the rainbow.

14. *How are the colours of the rainbow produced?*—By the sun's rays being reflected and decomposed in their passage through the falling drops of rain; to see the rainbow, we must stand between the sun and the falling shower.

15. *Is the rainbow produced by moonlight?*—Yes; but faintly—it is called a lunar rainbow.

16. *Can the rainbow be seen on a small scale?*—It can be seen in the spray of a water-fall; and its colours are seen in the crystal drops of a chandelier, when lighted up.

17. *What is polarisation of light?*—A change produced on light by a series of reflections, or transmission through crystals, by which it is said to be polarised, or to have opposite poles; this remarkable property in light has engaged the deep study of men of science.

18. *What use has sunlight besides that of giving us light?*—The light of the sun powerfully affects vegetation. It gives the green colour to grass and other vegetables; without it, plants become white and sickly, as is seen in vegetables growing in a dark cellar.

19. *How does sunlight affect animal life?*—It communicates health, and a sensation of pleasure to most animals, particularly to human beings, who do not thrive in dingy situations.

20. *What is artificial light?*—The light given by candles, gas, and other inflammable articles.

21. *What is meant by optics?*—The term optics signifies the branch of science which treats of light and vision; it is from a Greek word signifying to see.

22. *What is the principle of vision?*—Objects presented to the eye have their images depicted on the back part of the eye, called the *retina*, from which certain nerves convey intelligence of the image to the brain.

23. *But how is the image or picture of objects condensed into so small a space?*—The front part of the eye forms a lens which collects the rays of light proceeding from the object, and throws them condensed on the retina.

24. *Describe a lens.*—There are various kinds of artificial lenses, but the best known are those used for spectacles, which consist of pieces of transparent glass, ground so as to bulge in the centre; they act on the principle of collecting the rays from objects and transmitting them to the eye, in aid of the natural lens.

25. *What is meant by 'the focus of a lens?'*—It signifies the point at which the converging rays meet. The greatest

heat is there felt, hence the name. By means of a lens, the rays of the sun may be made to set fire to an inflammable substance at the proper focal distance.

26. *What is a telescope?*—It is an optical instrument, consisting of a tube fitted up with a number of lenses, by which distant objects are seen distinctly; the word *telescope* is from the Greek *tele*, at a distance, and *scopeo*, I see.

27. *What is a microscope?*—It is an optical instrument, fitted up with lenses and mirrors for the purpose of magnifying very minute objects; the word *microscope* is from the Greek *micros*, small, and *scopeo*, I see.

28. *To what uses has the microscope been put by men of science?*—By its means, a knowledge has been gained of the structure of exceedingly small animals, also the structure of plants, and other minute objects.

29. *What is phosphorescent light?*—It is that which is natural to minute animals in the sea, some kinds of fish, certain decaying animal matter, and also the glow-worm and fire-flies.

30. *What is electricity?*—A remarkable property in nature, which, like heat, pervades all material things.

31. *From what is the word electricity derived?*—From *electron*, the Greek word for *amber*, which, when rubbed, was observed to have the power of attracting light bodies, as hair and feathers.

32. *Does any other body than amber shew this power?*—Yes; several others, particularly glass, which, when smartly and continuously rubbed, emits bright electric sparks.

33. *How is this best done?*—By an electrifying machine, in which a glass cylinder is kept rubbing against a cushion, and the electricity so produced can be collected into a phial coated with tin-foil. A collection of such phials is called an electric battery.

34. *What is a good conductor of electricity?*—A metal wire or rod; all metals being good electric conductors.

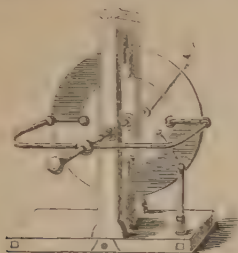
35. *What are bad electric conductors?*—Glass, wax, silk, wool, and feathers, also dry air.

36. *Is electricity always the same?*—No; there are two opposite kinds, called positive and negative.

37. *What ensues when a body that is positively charged is brought in contact with one negatively charged?*—The positive rushes into the negative to restore the equilibrium. Usually a flash of electric light is seen on such occasions.

38. *Where is this seen on a grand scale?*—In nature, when the

positive electricity in an overcharged cloud passes with a tremendous explosion, into clouds negatively charged, or into the ground.



Electrifying Machine.

39. *What is lightning?*—Flashes of electricity from overcharged clouds.

40. *What is thunder?*—Explosions of electricity in the atmosphere.

41. *Is thunder dangerous?*—No, but lightning is ; after the flash is over the danger is past.

42. *What is done to avert injury to buildings from lightning?*—The buildings are provided with metal rods which conduct the lightning to the ground.

43. *How is electricity otherwise demonstrated in nature?*—In several ways, such as those light streaks in the sky at night, called the *Aurora Borealis*, or electricity passing through rarified parts of the atmosphere.

44. *What is magnetism?*—It is a natural property resembling electricity, if not another form of the same thing.

45. *Where is the magnetic property largely observable?*—In one of the ores of iron called the loadstone, from which, by rubbing, it can be communicated to any piece of steel. Such magnetised pieces of steel are called artificial magnets.

46. *What is remarkable about these magnets?*—They attract small pieces of iron to them, and hold them by mere contact.

47. *What else is remarkable?*—Between the two opposite points of such slips of metal the magnetic influence is continually though invisibly flowing.

48. *What are the poles of the magnet?*—Its extremities, where the magnetic influence is greatest.

49. *Have these poles any reference to the poles of the Earth?*—Yes. The earth itself seems to be a great magnet, and its

magnetic poles nearly correspond with the north and south pole. It is found that the poles of an artificial magnet, when nicely poised, are directed towards the magnetic poles of the earth ; hence the action of the mariner's compass.

50. *What is Galvanism ?*—The electricity developed by the action of certain chemical agents on plates of different metals, usually zinc and copper, and which, like the electricity of friction, can be collected in batteries.

51. *What is this species of battery called ?*—A galvanic battery, from its discoverer, Galvani, an Italian philosopher.

52. *To what use has this kind of electricity been put ?*—It is employed in the electric-clock and electric-telegraph.

53. *What is the principle of the electric-telegraph ?*—Electricity being sent along a wire, causes the deflection of a needle at its opposite end, that points to letters on a dial according to the will of the operator.

54. *What is meteorology ?*—The branch of science which treats of winds, clouds, rain, thunder, lightning, and all things remarkable in the atmosphere.

Matter and Motion—Water—Mechanics.

1. *What is scientifically meant by matter ?*—All that we can recognise by the senses—the earth, air, water, animals and vegetables, the sun and other heavenly bodies.

2. *Explain the difference between organic and inorganic bodies.*—Organic bodies are those having a structure composed of parts each adapted to perform some separate function ; inorganic bodies are destitute of this natural provision. Animals and plants—in other words, all things that have life—are organic bodies ; all other things are inorganic.

3. *When one body is heavier than another of the same bulk, what is said of it ?*—That it is more dense, or consists of more particles of matter.

4. *Give some examples of this difference of density.*—A stone is more dense than water ; water is denser than cork ; and cork is denser than air.

5. *Is matter destructible ?*—No ; when, for example, a thing is burned, it is destroyed only as regards its form ; the matter of which it was composed has assumed new shapes.

6. *Give examples of substances assuming new shapes.*—If the substance burned be coal, it is dispersed in the form of smoke or particles of soot, gas, and ashes or dust. In the same manner, animal and vegetable substances decaying in the ground, turn to dust or exhale into gases.

7. *Mention the name of the force which draws or attracts masses of matter towards each other.*—Attraction of gravitation, as exemplified in the falling of bodies to the earth.

8. *When a thing falls from our hand, is its fall only the result of attraction?*—Yes; the earth attracts it, and we say it falls.

9. *What is the principle on which this species of attraction takes place?*—Two bodies of the same size attract or draw each other equally; but if one be double the other, it will exert a double force; and so on in proportion.

10. *Is the attraction exerted from the centre or the surface of bodies?*—It is exerted from the central point, round which the particles are equally assembled. If more particles are on one side of a body than another, the centre of attraction will be correspondingly different.

11. *Give an instance.*—When a body falls to the ground, it descends in the direction of the centre of the earth.

12. *Is what we call straight up and down in this direction?*—Yes; the straight, upright front of a building, for example, is in this direction. This is determined by applying the plumb-line, which hangs straight down in the direction of the centre of the earth.

13. *How does distance affect attraction?*—Attraction varies according as bodies are near or distant from each other—always the further away, the less attraction. It diminishes inversely as the squares of the distances.

14. *Explain this more clearly.*—Whatever be the attraction at the distance of one foot, it is, at the distance of two feet, reduced to a fourth of what it was; if the distance is made three feet, the attraction becomes a ninth; if four feet, a sixteenth. The same law holds good of light, heat, and all influences which emanate from a certain point.

15. *What is weight?*—Weight is only a result of attraction. An article weighing a thousand pounds at the level of the sea, will, at the height of four miles, weigh by a spring-balance two pounds less.

16. *Why a spring-balance?*—Because, if an ordinary balance

with scales were used, the weight put into one scale would be as much affected as the article put into the other.

17. *Are there any small bodies in space beyond the earth's attraction?*—Innumerable small bodies are believed to be floating in space, or circling round the sun, beyond the ordinary attraction of the earth.

18. *Do any of these bodies ever fall to the earth?*—It is supposed they occasionally do, when the earth, in the course of its annual revolution, happens to come so near them as to draw them towards it; such bodies are called *aërolites* or *meteorolites*.

19. *What is the appearance of meteorolites in falling?*—They have a luminous appearance, on which account they are sometimes spoken of as fire-balls or shooting-stars.

20. *Why are meteorolites luminous?*—They get heated and luminous from the rapidity with which they shoot through the atmosphere towards the earth; when cool, they seem to be of a metallic character. A number of different sizes are to be seen in museums.

21. *Is the attraction towards the earth the same in all parts of the globe at the sea-level?*—No; the attraction is weakest at the equator, and stronger as we advance to the poles.

22. *Why is there this difference?*—Because the globe is not a perfect sphere; its diameter at the equator is twenty-six miles greater than at the poles; on which account it follows that the surface there is thirteen miles further away from the centre than the surface at the poles; consequently, the drawing force at the poles is strongest.

23. *Can this difference of attraction be exemplified in any way?*—Yes; by means of the pendulum.

24. *What is a pendulum?*—It is a piece of metal swung by a rod, which regulates the movement of clocks.

25. *How is the pendulum affected by attraction?*—Its swinging to and fro being of the nature of falling, it swings more actively, or is attracted quicker backwards and forwards at the poles than at the equator.

26. *How are pendulums regulated so as to keep good time everywhere?*—They are gradually lengthened in advancing towards the poles; for the longer they are, they vibrate the slower. In this way the increasing attraction is counteracted.

27. *How does the attraction of gravitation operate as regards liquids?*—Attraction operates in liquids as on solids, but the particles of a liquid being free to move in any direction, they all endeavour to get to the lowest level within their reach.

28. *What is usually said of this tendency in water?*—That by gravitation water will always find its level.

29. *How is this seen in nature?*—By the flowing of rivers and rivulets. As is well known, the force of running water is employed as a moving power to turn mills.

30. *How is water supplied to towns?*—By being conducted through close pipes, down which it flows by its own gravity.

31. *How high will it rise in any town to which it is conducted?*—Water will rise to the level of the fountain from which it flows, and no higher.

32. *Does the pressure of water depend on its depth?*—Yes ; it increases with the depth ; this is shewn by the bursting of pipes in low situations, and also of deep reservoirs in which it is confined.

33. *What is meant by specific gravity?*—The specific gravity of a body is its weight compared with that of water.

34. *Give an example.*—The specific gravity of wood is less than that of water ; and the result is, that water buoys up wood. Stone being heavier than water, naturally sinks.

35. *But are not stones easily moved in water?*—Yes ; because the water partially supports them on all sides. Heavy stones and masses of gravel are thus swept away by floods.

36. *Does the buoyant power of water depend on its depth or expanse?*—No ; if there be enough water to surround an object lighter than itself, that object will float. A ship floats as high in a small dock as in the ocean.

37. *What is meant by hydraulics?*—Such is the branch of science which refers to the motion of water as in pipes and sewers, and its action on machinery ; by *hydrostatics* is meant the science which treats of the properties of water when it is at rest.

38. *What is the cause of friction?*—A tendency in one body to adhere to another, called adhesion. The application of grease or oil, as is observable in the greasing of axles of wheels and the oiling of machinery, is a method usually adopted to overcome friction in moving bodies.

39. *How does adhesion act as between solids and liquids?*—It acts more powerfully than between solids and solids. If we dip our hand into water, the water adheres to it, and requires to be rubbed off ; what we call *wetting* is only the adhesion of the liquid to the solid body.

40. *But liquids do not always wet solids or adhere to them.*—This ensues when the particles of one substance have a greater

attraction towards each other than towards those of another substance. As examples—a rod coated with grease remains dry when plunged in water ; and the natural oil on the feathers of water-fowl keeps them from being wetted.

41. *What is capillary attraction ?*—It is a particular effect of adhesion, which, acting in small hair-like tubes, is called capillary attraction, from *capillus*, the Latin word for a hair.

42. *Describe its action.*—If the end of one of these small glass tubes is dipped in water, the water is seen to rise in the tube above the rest of the surface. There will be no such rising, however, unless the water wets the tube.

43. *Give some familiar examples of capillary attraction.*—Oil creeps up the wick of a lamp to supply the flame ; water will creep up a lump of sugar till it is all moistened ; water will creep up the foundations of a house and render the walls damp ; and water in a cup rises a little way all round as if anxious to cling to the vessel.

44. *If a small object such as a stalk of tea is floated on the surface, what ensues ?*—If near the edge, it will rush to the side of the vessel and cling to it.

45. *What is the inertia of bodies ?*—The tendency to remain in the condition in which they are placed, whether at rest or in motion ; for example, a carriage is at first difficult to be set in motion, but when moving it is as difficult to stop it.

46. *What is the tendency of a body in a state of motion ?*—To go straight forward, until it is obstructed or drawn out of its course. When a ball is shot from a cannon it would go straight on for ever unless it were drawn down or attracted by the earth, or stopped by the air through which it has to pass, and the same would take place with other projectiles.

47. *How is this inertia shewn in the case of persons in a carriage ?*—All the persons in a moving carriage participate in the motion. This is fatally exemplified when they attempt to leap from the carriage, for, continuing in a state of forward motion, they are dashed on the ground.

48. *Are the lower animals acquainted with this inertia ?*—Hares instinctively know that by doubling quickly in being hunted, they will perhaps outrun the dogs which follow them, for the dogs, not expecting such sudden turns, shoot a good way onward before they get round on the new track.

49. *What is meant by saying that the action and reaction of bodies are equal and opposite ?*—That a body reacts or strikes with the force with which it is struck. If I strike a table with my hand, my hand is equally struck by the table. When

a blacksmith strikes his hammer on the anvil, the anvil gives a blow with equal force to the hammer.

50. *Give further examples ?*—When a man standing in a boat tries to push another boat away from him, he pushes his own boat off at the same time. When a person fires a gun, the moving force of the gun is equal to the moving force of the ball, but the gun being much heavier than the ball, its backward tendency or recoil is proportionally less than the forward motion of the ball, and is therefore easily checked.

51. *What is momentum ?*—The motion or force in a moving body. But momentum does not depend on velocity alone ; it is made up of velocity and quantity of matter ; the momentum of a ball of iron being very much greater than a ball of wood of the same size.

52. *When a body falls from a great height, is its fall equal throughout ?*—No ; its descent becomes quicker as it falls, because it is at every instant receiving a fresh impulse from gravitation ; while, at the same time, it never loses any of the motion it got from the former impulses.

53. *How is this exemplified ?*—In the severe shock which is experienced by a person falling from the roof of a house, in comparison to that which he suffers in falling from a chair to the floor.

54. *Explain why vehicles when loaded high are so easily upset.*—In proportion as we raise a load on a carriage, we raise its centre of gravity, or that point in the mass on which the earth's attraction may be held to be exerted, and if this point happen to lean over, the vehicle has a tendency to be upset.

55. *What do we practically learn from this ?*—To keep the centre of gravity in moving vehicles as low as is practicable, so as to preserve a proper balance or equilibrium.

56. *How do rope-dancers usually preserve their equilibrium ?*—By holding a long pole loaded with lead at both ends, with which they can adjust their balance on the rope.

57. *What are the mechanical powers ?*—Certain elementary machines or instruments, out of which all machinery is constructed.

58. *Name the elementary mechanical powers.*—The lever, the pulley, the inclined plane, the wheel and axle, the wedge, and the screw.

59. *Can these be reduced in number ?*—In principle, they can be reduced to two—the lever and the inclined plane.

60. *What is the lever ?*—An instrument named from the

French word *lever*, to raise, and which is designed for raising weights with comparative ease.

61. *What is its form?*—It may be described as a bar of iron or wood, the point of which being inserted below a heavy weight, we are enabled to raise it by exerting a moderate force at the opposite end.

62. *Does the lever create power?*—No ; it only modifies it. By no contrivance can we get more power from any instrument or machine than what we put into it.



Man and Lever.

63. *Explain how the power is modified.*—A pressure equal to one pound will lift ten pounds ; but to lift the ten pounds through one foot, the one pound must descend ten feet. Thus, length of time in pressing with a small force is made to balance or overcome a larger force ; in other words, power is gained by a sacrifice of speed.

64. *We may, then, understand that a lever consists of two parts?*—Yes ; it consists of two arms usually of unequal length—the hand being applied to the one, and the weight resting on the other.

65. *What is the fulcrum of a lever?*—It is the point or prop between the two ends of the ordinary kind of lever.

66. *Give examples of the lever.*—The lever is exemplified in various ways. The instrument by which a nut is cracked is one example. We have another instance in the rowing of a boat : the hand of the rower is the power, the water against which the blade pushes is the fulcrum, and the resistance to be moved is the boat.

67. *What is the steelyard?*—An instrument for weighing of the nature of the lever.

68. *Explain its action.*—It is a lever suspended by a pivot

which is the fulcrum ; from the short arm depends a scale for the article to be weighed ; and on the long arm a weight is hung as a balance. In proportion as the article to be weighed is heavy, so is the weight slipped along to a greater distance from it.

69. *What is the inclined plane ?*—Any rise in a road is an inclined plane. The most obvious example is that of a cart and horse going uphill. If the rise be one foot in ten feet, the horse, in addition to the draught on a level road, has to draw with a force equal to a tenth of the weight of the load.

70. *Give examples of instruments conceived on the plan of the inclined plane.*—The most familiar examples are the wedge and screw, both of great importance in the arts. As in the case of the lever, a small force exerted through a long space, has the effect of a greater force acting over a smaller space.

71. *Why do people feel tired in going up a long stair or steep hill ?*—Because they are at every step lifting their own weight.

72. *What is the wheel and axle ?*—It is only a variety of the lever, as exemplified in windlasses for drawing up heavy weights, and in capstans for raising the anchors of ships.

73. *What is the pulley ?*—It is a wheel of wood or metal, fixed in a block, and capable of turning on an axis, with a groove cut around the circumference, to receive a rope.

74. *How may power be gained by the pulley ?*—By making a combination of them. Pulleys may be combined in a variety of ways ; but the most generally used form is that known by the name of the 'Block and Tackle' arrangement.

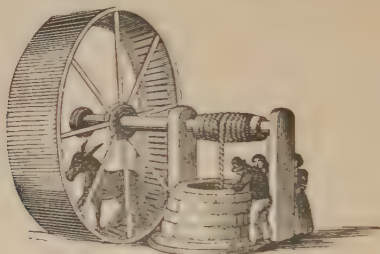
75. *What examples of these mechanical powers have we in machinery ?*—The cogs or teeth of wheels acting on each other, are examples of the lever. The working of pump-handles, cranks, axles, and a variety of other kinds of mechanism, are adaptations of these powers. A donkey walking up the inside of a large wheel in order to draw water from a well, is a well-known example of the wheel and axle.

76. *What is the special use of machinery ?*—To simplify labour. One of the simplest machines is a spade, without which or some other implement, we should have to dig with the hands.



Simple Pulley

77. *What is meant by the phrase 'mechanical combination of substances?'*—It signifies that the substances are simply mixed



Donkey and Well.

together—as for example, milk mixed with tea, spirits mixed with water—without any change in the properties of the substances. The phrase is used as a distinction from 'chemical combination,' in which the mixed substances undergo a thorough change of character.

78. *What is meant by 'Physics?'*—It signifies the science which treats of objects in nature and the principles on which they act; the term is from a Greek word signifying *nature*.

79. *What is 'Natural Philosophy?'*—That is a term often employed instead of *Physics*, and is that great department of science which includes the laws of matter and motion, meteorology, pneumatics, optics, acoustics, hydrostatics, and some other subjects.

The Vegetable Creation.

1. *What is the Vegetable Creation?'*—It consists of all kinds of vegetables or plants, from the smallest to the greatest—from the lichen that incrusts the rock to the loftiest trees.

2. *What other name is given to the vegetable creation?'*—The Vegetable Kingdom, by which it is distinguished from the Animal and Mineral Kingdoms.

3. *How are plants produced?'*—They chiefly grow from the seeds of previous plants of the same kind.

4. *Are there many different kinds of plants?*—Upwards of a hundred and twenty thousand different kinds are ascertained to exist, and no doubt many are yet unknown.

5. *When you say exist, do you mean that plants live?*—Yes; their existence is a kind of life—life without consciousness. Generally, they are fixed to the spot on which they grow.

6. *What nourishes them?*—They require air, water, and a certain amount of heat.

7. *Do all plants require sunlight?*—The greater number do; but there are some which grow in very dark situations.

8. *What is the effect of sunlight on plants?*—It imparts the green colour which is so pleasing to the eye.

9. *How do plants imbibe nourishment?*—In the greater number of plants, the nourishment ascends from the roots through the stalk and branches by means of very minute tubes or sap-vessels.

10. *Of what service is the air to plants?*—The leaves of plants have the property of absorbing a certain amount of carbonic acid gas, which they find in the air that has been used or vitiated by animals; so that what would become greatly injurious to animal life, is serviceable to vegetable life.

11. *Do plants exhale any species of air or gas in return?*—In daylight they give off oxygen and moisture, which are serviceable to the animal creation; and thus the salubrity of the atmosphere is maintained.

12. *From what are seeds produced?*—Generally from certain parts of the plant called the pistil and stamens within the flower; the germinating power being promoted by a species of dust called the pollen, which is shed by the stamens.

13. *In what manner do seeds grow in the soil?*—Seeds begin by swelling; then, from a part of the seed called the eye, a double shoot is sent forth, of which one part goes down to form the root, while the other rises to be the stem.

14. *On being gathered, do seeds long retain their vitality?*—Some seeds are known to have retained their vitality for thousands of years; they will also lie buried for ages in the ground until circumstances allow them to germinate; but if exposed to the air, most seeds lose their vitality after a few years.

15. *What plants do not produce the ordinary kind of seeds?*—The Cryptogamia, which form the lowest class, in point of

organisation, in the vegetable kingdom ; the name is derived from two Greek words signifying secret marriage.

16. *Mention some of the plants included in the cryptogamia.*—Ferns, mosses, lichens, algæ or sea-weeds, and fungi.

17. *How are cryptogamous plants reproduced ?*—In various ways ; sometimes, as in the case of ferns, from spores which grow in clusters like specks on the under side of the leaf ; sometimes, as in the case of fungi, from spores within a part of the plant, which, broken off and scattered in suitable situations, will reproduce.



Fern, with Spores.

18. *What is the difference between a seed and a spore ?*—A seed sends out a shoot from a particular point ; a spore grows from any part.

19. *How are seeds and spores diffused by nature ?*—They are carried by birds, wafted by winds, and dispersed in various other ways ; many kinds of spores are invisible to the naked eye, and no one can tell where they alight.

20. *Has not nature provided some seeds with means for flying ?*—Yes ; the seeds of the dandelion, thistle, and many other plants, are furnished with a soft down to float them through the air.

21. *What plants fling their seeds from them when ripe ?*—The broom, the poppy, and others ; as the poppy-head waves on its stalk in the wind, it throws out its small seeds to some distance through a circular row of holes.

22. *Are the fungi edible ?*—Only a few kinds ; those known as mushrooms, morels, and truffles are edible. The greater number, including what are called toad-stools, are poisonous.

23. *Where do fungous plants usually grow ?*—In dark and damp situations, and where there are any decaying substances to afford them nourishment.

24. *Mention familiar examples of cryptogamous vegetation in dwelling-houses.*—Mould and mildew, which are seen chiefly where there is damp. The dry-rot in timber is another example.

25. *Have plants been classified ?*—Yes ; according to certain peculiarities, they have been arranged into classes, genera, and species by Linnæus, a Swedish naturalist.

26. *What is his system of classification called?*—The Linnæan system, which may be studied from books of botany.

27. *Has any other person attempted a classification?*—Yes; Jussieu, a French naturalist, classifies plants into families chiefly according to the structure of the flowers and fruit. His system has since been much improved by others, and is now generally adopted as in harmony with nature.

28. *Which are the vegetables most directly serviceable to man?*—Grains, esculent roots and plants, fibrous plants, medicinal plants, and fruit and timber trees.

29. *What other name is given to the grains?*—Cereal plants, so called from Ceres, the heathen goddess of corn. The most important are wheat, barley, oats, maize or Indian corn, rye, rice, and millet; wheat is largely used for bread. It is customary to call all kinds of grain corn.

30. *What is the principal use of barley?*—That of being made into malt, from which ale, beer, and spirits are chiefly prepared.

31. *What is malt?*—Barley, which, by being moistened with water, has begun to germinate, and is afterwards dried.

32. *What are the uses of oats?*—Oats are much used as the food of horses; but when ground into meal they form a nourishing food for the use of man.

33. *Where is Indian corn largely in use?*—In the United States of America, and in various parts of Africa and Asia.

34. *Where are rice and millet much in use?*—In India, where they form the principal articles of subsistence.

35. *What are leguminous or pulse crops?*—Beans, peas, lentils, and some others of less importance.

36. *Are there numerous grasses?*—Yes; they are exceedingly numerous, particularly in England, where they grow in perfection.

37. *What are artificial grasses?*—That is a term often misapplied to such plants as clover and lucerne, which are not, properly speaking, grasses, but are sown for fodder.

38. *Which are esculent vegetables?*—The potato, turnip, cauliflower, cabbage, carrot, beet-root, parsnip, leek, and onion are those which chiefly grow in European countries.

39. *Is the potato a native of Europe?*—No; it was introduced from Chili, in South America, at the close of the sixteenth century.

40. *What are tubers?*—Roundish or oblong knobs which

grow in connection with the roots of certain plants. Potatoes, yams, and arrow-root are examples of tubers.

41. *What are bulbous plants?*—Those which have roots in the form of bulbs.

42. *What is a bulb?*—A rounded root consisting of concentric layers or rings, from the top of which springs the stem; the onion, lily, and tulip are examples.

43. *What are annuals?*—Those plants which grow only for a year or season, and then perish.

44. *What are biennials?*—Those plants which continue two years; the root, stem, and leaves generally grow the first year, and the flower the second; after which they die.

45. *What are perennials?*—Plants which continue a number of years.

46. *What are herbaceous plants?*—Those having soft stems, which easily perish; as in the case of annuals and biennials, also many perennials.

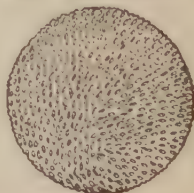
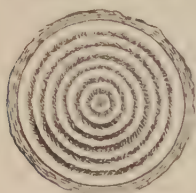
47. *What are orchideous plants?*—A particular order of herbaceous perennials, prized for their beautiful flowers; some of the tropical species, which naturally grow on the boughs of trees, have been introduced into hot-houses, where they are suspended in moss or on blocks of wood.

48. *What are evergreens?*—Trees and shrubs which always retain their verdure, such as the fir, holly, and laurel.

49. *How do evergreens shed their leaves?*—The oldest leaves drop off in spring, when new ones are formed on fresh shoots.

50. *What are deciduous trees?*—Those which shed their leaves annually on the approach of winter.

51. *What are exogenous trees?*—Those which increase in bulk by concentric rings beneath the bark annually. The



Section of an **Exogenous** and an **Endogenous Tree**.

trees of Great Britain are of this kind, such as the oak, ash, elm, larch, and others, the age of which can be reckoned by the number of concentric rings.

52. *What are endogenous trees?*—Those which increase in bulk by growth in the centre and upwards, of which the palm is an example.

53. *What are exotics?*—Plants which have been introduced from foreign countries.

54. *What are indigenous plants?*—Those which grow naturally in the country—not exotics.

55. *What is meant by the acclimatising of plants?*—Habituating them to a climate foreign to that to which they have been accustomed.

56. *Mention some of the plants which are largely in use?*—Tobacco, cotton, flax and hemp, sugar-cane, tea and coffee plants—all of which, except flax and hemp, are grown in countries foreign to Great Britain.

57. *Which are the more remarkable fruit-trees and shrubs?*—The vine, date, fig, olive, orange, lemon, peach, apricot, walnut, plum, cherry, apple, and pear, are the most notable in European countries.

58. *Where does the vine principally grow?*—It grows in warm eastern countries, and is often mentioned in the Bible ; but it is now grown to a large extent in France, Italy, and on the banks of the Rhine ; also in America and Australia.

59. *Which are the smaller fruits best known in Great Britain?*—The gooseberry, strawberry, raspberry, and currant—which grow in several varieties and in great profusion.

60. *Which are the principal timber trees in European countries?*—The oak, ash, elm, beech, birch, hawthorn, sycamore, lime, chestnut, and several kinds of pine.

61. *Which of these trees yield the strongest timber?*—The oak, chestnut, ash, and elm, which are of slow growth ; the most durable of all being the oak.

62. *Which are found to be the most valuable for general purposes?*—The different kinds of pine, particularly the larch, of which large plantations are formed.

63. *Which of these trees are valuable for their bark?*—The oak and larch, the bark of which is used for tanning leather.

64. *Which foreign tree is most prized for its timber?*—The mahogany-tree, which grows in the central parts of America, and attains to a great size ; also the teak, which is valuable for ship-building.

65. *Which is the tallest tree known?*—The Wellingtonia

Gigantea, which grows in California, and sometimes reaches a height of above three hundred feet.

The Animal Creation.

1. *What does the Animal Creation comprehend?*—All living creatures, from the most minute to the most highly organised ; at the head of the whole is man.

2. *How is the animal creation sometimes designated?*—As the Animal Kingdom ; the science which treats of it is called *Zoology*, from two Greek words signifying a discourse on animals.

3. *What are the ideas that first occur to the mind concerning animals?*—We are struck with their vast multiplicity and wonderful diversity of form and character, the provision made for their support, and their adaptation to the conditions in which they are placed—all which ideas are suggestive of the infinite wisdom and goodness of the Almighty.

4. *Is any animal insignificant?*—No ; there are many very humble, and many very troublesome creatures ; but when closely examined, all invite our wonder, and each is seen to be an essential part of the plan of creation.

5. *What is meant by the phrase ‘lower animals?’*—All animals except man, who is the higher, and, in the language of Scripture, has been endowed with ‘dominion over the fish of the sea, and over the fowl of the air, and over every living thing that moveth on the earth.’

6. *Occupying this high position, what is the duty of man to the lower animals?*—His duty is to rule them with kindness, to make use of them, but not to abuse them, and even in killing them for food or for any other necessary purpose, to inflict as little pain as possible.

7. *Do the lower animals prey on each other?*—Such is observed to be the case with many orders of animals, and is apparently according to a design in nature to restrain an undue abundance of certain kinds of animal life.

8. *Give some examples.*—Swallows and some other birds clear the air of gnats, flies, and other insects ; these birds are in turn killed by hawks ; toads clear the ground of slugs and other crawling creatures ; cats destroy mice ; weasels rid the fields of vermin ; lions, tigers, and panthers keep down the

number of herbivorous beasts, and so on. The examples are endless.

9. *Has nature pursued any plan for ridding the ground of dead animals?*—Yes; the means ordained for this purpose are very remarkable—they consist in giving certain creatures an appetite for decaying animal substances.

10. *Give examples.*—Vultures have the faculty of descrying dead bodies at great distances, and immediately proceed to devour them; but the destruction of such offensive substances is effected quite as well by certain kinds of beetles, ants, and also by maggots.

11. *How are maggots brought into connection with these decaying substances?*—They are produced from eggs laid by certain flies, which, like vultures, wing their way to dead bodies. When the maggots have accomplished their object, they undergo a transformation which brings them to the condition of flies, and these proceed to new subjects for destruction.

12. *What is meant by the balance of nature?*—It has been thought that nature has adjusted a balance between the production and destruction of animal life, and that man may indiscreetly interfere to disturb this arrangement.

13. *Mention an instance of man having disturbed the balance of animal life.*—In France, so many small birds have been indiscreetly killed, that the vegetation is in many places destroyed by caterpillars. Had the birds been let alone, they would have destroyed the caterpillars, and thus the ‘balance of nature’ would not have been deranged.

14. *How does climate affect animal life?*—In cold countries the number of animals is limited, while in tropical regions the abundance of animal life, particularly as regards insects and reptiles, is excessive and troublesome.

15. *How were animals at one time classed?*—As beasts or quadrupeds, birds, fishes, reptiles, worms, and insects.

16. *Why was this classification abandoned?*—Because it was found to be imperfect, and left out a number of creatures that could not be included in any of these divisions.

17. *Who attempted a new classification?*—Cuvier, a French naturalist, whose arrangement is now adopted. According to this plan, the whole animal kingdom is, in the first place, divided into four provinces or sub-kingdoms.

18. *Mention these sub-kingdoms.*—1. Radiata, or Rayed Animals; 2. Mollusca, or Pulpy Animals; 3. Articulata,

or Jointed Animals ; and, 4. Vertebrata, or Back-boned Animals.

19. *How are these departments subdivided ?*—Each is divided into classes ; classes are divided into orders ; orders into families and genera ; and the genera into species and varieties.

20. *Does the system include all living creatures whatsoever ?*—It is designed to do so ; but new animals, particularly of lower kinds, are constantly being discovered, and they require to be added.

21. *What is meant by species ?*—It is a term applied to any form which is maintained uniformly through a succession of generations. For example, the horse is one species, and the ass another ; and though there is a resemblance between the two, each continues its own species alone.

22. *Are there not exceptions to this rule ?*—Only in a slight degree. The horse and ass produce a hybrid called the mule, but the mule has no descendants. Nature seems to interpose a check to such mixtures of races, however much they resemble each other.

23. *Are all dogs of one species ?*—Yes ; but they are of distinctly-marked varieties, each of which it is important to preserve pure, for any intermixture produces deterioration.

24. *Are not different varieties of sheep sometimes blended with advantage ?*—They are ; but such artificial breeds are of temporary value : they require constant care, and often also renewal—nature here, again, interposing to preserve distinctness of variety.

25. *Can we conjecture what nature means by preserving distinctness in the classes, species, and varieties of animals ?*—It seems part of a wise design to prevent confusion in the animal creation.

26. *What are gregarious animals ?*—Those which like to live in flocks and herds ; sheep and cattle are gregarious, and so are many birds, such as rooks, and a number of smaller birds at certain seasons.

27. *What are pairing animals ?*—Those which pair, male and female, for a season, in order mutually to support their young until they are able to seek food for themselves. Small birds offer an example of pairing animals. A few birds pair for life.

28. *What are oviparous animals ?*—Those produced from eggs ; they are called oviparous from two Latin words, *ovum*, an egg, and *pario*, I produce. Birds are oviparous.

29. *What are viviparous animals ?*—Those produced in a

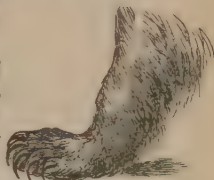
living state ; they are called viviparous from the Latin words *vivus*, alive, and *pario*, I produce.

30. *What are ovoviparous animals?*—Those within which the eggs are hatched before the young are produced ; the common lizard is an example.

31. *What are digitigrade quadrupeds?*—Those which walk on their toes, of which the dog and cat are examples ; the term digitigrade is from the Latin *digitus*, a finger or toe, and *gradior*, I walk.

32. *What are plantigrade quadrupeds?*—Those which walk on the sole of the foot, of which the bear is an example ; the term plantigrade is from the Latin *planta*, the sole of the foot, and *gradior*, I walk.

33. *What are hibernating animals?*—Those which pass the winter in a secluded and dormant state, of which the bat is an example ; the term hibernating is from the Latin *hiberno*, I winter.



Foot of Bear.

34. *What are domesticated animals?*—Those which are usually reared in a tame state in association with man, such as the dog, cat, fowls, pigeons, canary birds, the horse, ass, ox, and some others.

35. *What are amphibious animals?*—Those which can live either in water or on land, such as the frog ; they are called amphibious, from two Greek words signifying a double life.

36. *What are parasitic animals?*—Those which habitually live within or upon other animals from which they draw their nourishment. There are parasitic plants as well as animals.

37. *What are reckoned the lowest forms of animal life?*—Those belonging to the Radiata.

38. *Mention some of the Radiata.*—The *Infusoria*, or animalcules, so small as to be invisible to the naked eye, and usually found in stagnant water, also in sour beer, and some other liquids.

39. *Are these small creatures produced spontaneously in the liquids in which they are found?*—No ; no animal whatever can be produced but from the germ of previous animals like itself. In animal, as in vegetable life, there is no spontaneous production.

40. *Was not the contrary once believed?*—It was. In ancient times there prevailed a belief that certain insects were pro-

duced by putrefaction ; and not long since, there was a notion that small eels could be produced by horse-hairs dropped into stagnant water. All such notions are now exploded.

41. *But have not conditions a powerful effect on animal life?*—Certainly ; but the conditions—as in the souring of beer—only aid the principles of reproduction. Without the conditions, the germ of the animal would remain dormant.

42. *What is the appearance of the Infusoria?*—They are of various grotesque forms. Some resemble branches of plants, some are like tulips, and some are twisted like screws. Those of one order are called *Rotifera*, from the rotatory motion of certain organs which surround the mouth.

43. *How do these strange creatures propagate?*—Some lay eggs ; but the greater number divide their bodies into parts, each of which becomes a new animal.

44. *What are Zoophytes?*—Radiata, so named from their resemblance to growing plants, and which seem to form a connecting-link between animal and vegetable life.

45. *What are the Corallifera?*—One of the orders of zoophytes, which raise great structures of coral from the bottom of the sea.

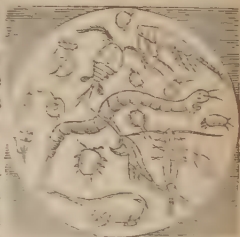
46. *Have sponges any connection with this order?*—Yes ; they are allied to the Corallifera, and are found chiefly in the Red and Mediterranean Seas. What we call sponge is the framework of the zoophyte cleared of the living matter.

47. *What are Polypi?*—A class of the radiata, so called from two Greek words signifying many feet. Some of them form floating fleshy masses, without organs of sense, and possess numerous arms or tentacula. When cut in pieces, each becomes an individual polypus.

48. *What are the Medusæ?*—Another class of the radiata, resembling floating masses of jelly, with depending tentacula, which may be seen in the ocean and also near the coast. The *Physalis* is a good example.

49. *What can be the use of the medusæ?*—They are probably of use in furnishing food to whales, also to the herring, and some other kinds of sea-fish.

50. *What are the Entozoa?*—They are a class of the radiata, which parasitically live within the bodies of other animals.



Various forms
of Animalcules.

51. *Mention one of the entozoa.*—The hydatid, which is sometimes found in the brains of sheep, causing a fatal disease; the germs of such creatures are understood to be introduced through the food.

52. *What kind of animals are the Mollusca, which form the second sub-kingdom?*—They consist of several classes of soft and pulpy animals, including some shell-fish and snails.

53. *What are univalve shells?*—Those having one shell, of which there is an example in the limpet.

54. *What are bivalve shells?*—Those having two shells, of which there is an example in the oyster.

55. *What is meant by Conchology?*—The branch of zoology connected with the study of shells.

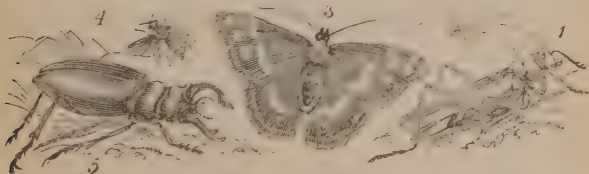
56. *What animals are included in the sub-kingdom Articulata?*—Certain jointed animals, of which there is a well-known class called the *Crustacea*; in it are included crabs, lobsters, prawns, and barnacles.

57. *What is the barnacle?*—It is a shell-fish which attaches itself by a stem to the bottoms of ships, or any floating piece of wood; also to branches of trees which hang over and touch the salt water. At one time it was thought that the barnacle hatched a kind of goose—a belief now known to be quite erroneous.

58. *Mention another well-known class in the Articulata.*—The class *Insecta*, in which are comprehended an innumerable



The *Physalis* or Portuguese Man-of-war.



Examples of Insects belonging to the orders *Coleoptera* (5), *Orthoptera* (1), *Hymenoptera* (4), *Lepidoptera* (3), and *Diptera* (2).

variety of genera and species, some being small creeping things, others being winged.

59. *Mention some of the insect orders.*—The *Coleoptera*

(beetles, glow-worms), the *Orthoptera* (grasshoppers), *Hymenoptera* (bees), *Lepidoptera* (butterflies, moths), and *Diptera* (flies).

60. *What is meant by 'insect transformation?'—*The changes which insects undergo. The butterfly, for example, lays a great number of eggs, from each of which issues a ringed worm called the *larva*, or, familiarly, the caterpillar. In time it assumes a shorter and harder form, and falls into a state of torpor, in which it is called the *chrysalis*. At length the exterior bursts, and there issues the butterfly or perfect insect.



Butterfly
Transformations.

61. *What is remarkable about the eyes of insects?*—They are usually much projected, and consist of a vast number of distinct lenses, which enable them to see on all sides.

62. *How many lenses have been counted in the eye of a butterfly?*—Seventeen thousand, making for the two eyes thirty-four thousand, each possessing the power of an eye. In addition to composite eyes of this kind, the bee has three simple eyes on the top of its head.

63. *What are the antennæ of insects?*—The antennæ are feelers—sometimes long, sometimes branched and feathered in the most beautiful manner, and with endless variety—projected from the front of the head, by which they can feel their way in the dark, or examine the nature of any object which they approach.

64. *What appears remarkable in the house-fly?*—Its power of walking with its back downwards on the ceiling. The soles of its feet are provided with suckers, and the air being exhausted at every step, the animal holds readily on.

65. *Is there anything else curious about the house-fly?*—Like the bee and some other insects, the house-fly possesses a trunk, or proboscis, with which it draws up food to its mouth.

66. *How many legs have the bee, house-fly, and other flying insects?*—SIX.

67. *Have not some insects the faculty of spinning?*—Yes; the most remarkable is the *Bombyx mori*, or silk-worm.

68. *Explain how this insect spins.*—When the silk-worm is in the caterpillar or larva state, and about to become torpid, it winds from its mouth a clue of viscous thread, in which it

enshrouds itself. This covering is called the *cocoon*, from which the fine thread is unwound by machinery, and forms silk.

69. *Do spiders belong to this sub-kingdom of animals?*—Yes, the house-spider, tarantula, and scorpion are included in the order *Arachnida*. The house-spider and small gossamer spider, as is well known, spin fine threads from the hinder part of their bodies, with which they weave webs to catch flies—all have eight legs.

70. *Mention a very small animal belonging to the Arachnida.*—The mite in decayed cheese, which has eight legs, and breathes through tubes interspersed throughout its body.

71. *What is the fourth sub-kingdom in the animal creation?*—The *Vertebrata*, or animals with back-bones.

72. *State how the Vertebrata are classified.*—They constitute four classes—*Pisces*, or Fishes; *Reptilia*, or Reptiles; *Aves*, or Birds; and *Mammalia*, or Suck-giving Animals.

73. *What is remarkable about Fishes?*—They swim in the water, and propel themselves by fins; they breathe through gills, and their blood is cold.

74. *What is the nature of the Reptilia?*—They mostly creep on four feet, and, like the fish, are cold-blooded; but they breathe with lungs.

75. *Mention some of the orders of reptiles?*—The *Sauria* compose an important order, in which are included the crocodile, alligator, lizard, and chameleon. The order *Ophidia* includes serpents and snakes. The tortoise and turtle are included in the order *Chelonia*, and the toad and frog in the *Batrachia*.

76. *What is the early condition of toads and frogs?*—They pass through the state of tadpoles, living like fishes, before they appear as perfect animals.

77. *Describe the Birds, or third class of Vertebrata.*—All are covered with feathers, they walk on two feet, they fly by means of wings, and they are reproduced from eggs.

78. *How many orders are in this class?*—Seven—the *Natatores*, or Swimmers; the *Grallatores*, or Waders; the *Cursores*, or Runners; the *Rasores*, or Scrapers; the *Insessores*, or Perching Birds; the *Raptores*, or Rapacious Birds; and the *Scansores*, or Climbing Birds.

79. *Mention some of the best-known Natatores.*—Ducks, geese, swans, and sea-gulls, which, like others in the same order, are distinguished by web-feet for swimming.

80. *Mention some of the Grallatores?*—The stork, heron, crane, pelican, and snipe. All have long legs, enabling them



Examples of each of the Seven Orders of Birds.

to wade in marshes, on the sea-shore, and within the margins of rivers, where, with their long bills, they pick up small fish and other food.

81. *What birds are included in the Cursores?*—The emu, cassowary, nandu, and ostrich, all of which possess long and powerful limbs for running.

82. *Explain the nature of the Rasores.*—The rasores, as their name imports, are birds which scrape for their food; familiar examples are the common hen, pheasant, turkey, peacock, grouse, and pigeon. The rasores are otherwise called *Galinaceous* birds, from the Latin word *gallus*, a cock.

83. *How are the pigeon tribes separately distinguished?*—As the *Columbidæ*, from the Latin, *columba*, a pigeon. They embrace numerous species and varieties, the turtle-dove being one of them.

84. *What birds are included in the order Raptores?*—The vulture, eagle, falcon, hawk, and owl, are well-known examples of this rapacious order of birds.

85. *Which are the Insessores, or perching birds?*—Many small birds, including the sparrow, thrush, swallow, nightingale, lark, bullfinch, magpie, crow, and rook; also a beautiful animal, the bird of paradise, and many others.

86. *Mention some examples of the Scansores, or climbing birds.*—The parrot, cockatoo, and wood-pecker.

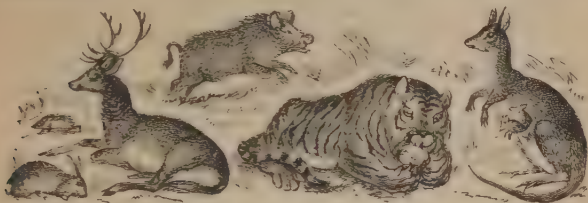
87. *Describe the class Mammalia, or suck-giving animals.*—This is the highest kind of animals, as regards either organisation or intelligence; the class is divided into various orders.

88. *Refer to some of the orders.*—One consists of the *Marsupialia*, or pouched animals, among which are included the kangaroo and opossum, which carry their young in pouches.

Another order is the *Monotrémata*, to which the ornithorhynchus of Australia belongs.

89. *Mention another order.*—The *Insectivora*, which includes hedgehogs, moles, shrews, and other obscure animals.

90. *Proceed.*—The order *Rodentia*, or gnawing animals, comprehending the squirrel, rat, mouse, beaver, hare, and guinea-pig.



Examples of Animals belonging to the orders Marsupialia, Insectivora, Rodentia, Ruminantia, Pachydermata, and Carnivora.

91. *Are there not some marine mammalia?*—Yes; the order of the *Cetacea*, which includes dolphins, porpoises, and whales; and the family of *Phocidæ*, or seals.

92. *What animals are included in the order Ruminantia?*—The camel, stag, antelope, goat, sheep, cow, giraffe, and buffalo; all live on grass, and derive their name as an order, from ‘ruminating’ or chewing the cud.

93. *Which compose the order Pachydermata?*—This term implies animals with a thick skin; in this order are included the elephant, rhinoceros, hippopotamus, tapir, hog, horse, and ass.

94. *Which animals are comprehended in the order Carnivora?* Those which live on flesh, and are provided with teeth for the purpose; in this order are very ferocious wild animals.

95. *How is the order carnivora divided?*—Into five families, the first of which is the *Felidæ*, or cat-tribe, including the domestic and wild cat, lion, tiger, leopard, and lynx; all possessing great power of leaping on and devouring prey.

96. *Which is the second family of carnivora?*—The *Canidæ* or dog-tribe, which includes the dog, wolf, fox, and jackal.

97. *Which animals compose the order Cheiroptera?*—The cheiroptera are generally creatures which fly about by night, and live on insects, of which the bat is a well-known specimen.

98. *What does Linnæus call this order of animals?*—He

employs the Latin term *Vespertilio*, which is significant of their flying about in the evening.

99. *What animals compose the order Quadrumana?*—All kinds of monkeys and lemurs; the term *quadrumana* signifying four hands, which these creatures may be said to possess for the sake of climbing. In this order are included the orang-outang, the chimpanzee, and the gorilla—animals approaching in figure to man.

100. *To what order is man assigned?*—The order *Bimana*, or two-handed, in which he stands alone.

Ethnology.

1. *What is Ethnology?*—It is the branch of knowledge which treats of the varieties or different races of men, their manners, and character; the term is from the Greek *ethnos*, a nation.

2. *In what respect is man at the head of the animal creation?*—He is so as regards superiority of structure and intelligence, and as possessing a moral nature, or consciousness of right and wrong.

3. *Why is man said to be an accountable being?*—Because, being able to distinguish right from wrong, he is accountable to God for his actions.

4. *In what respect does the intelligence of the lower animals differ from that of man?* The intelligence of the lower animals is of an inferior character, ordinarily defined by the term *instinct*, by which they are guided, and can be cultivated only to a limited extent; whereas the intelligence of man is large and expansible, and may be transmitted according to the lessons of experience from generation to generation.

5. *What are the varieties in the races of man?*—There are usually said to be five varieties—the Caucasian, the Mongolian, the Malayan, the American Indian, and the Negro.

6. *Describe the Caucasian.*—The Caucasian variety of man is white, or nearly so, and is the most improvable of all the races; it is the Caucasian variety which inhabits the greater part of Europe.

7. *Why is the race called Caucasian?*—Because it was supposed to have originated in, and spread out from, the mountainous district of the Caucasus in Asia.

8. *What is the Anglo-Saxon race?*—It is that branch of the Caucasian variety which takes its name from certain German or Teutonic tribes who settled in Great Britain.



Examples of the Caucasian, Mongolian, Malayan, American Indian, and Negro races.

9. *What is the Celtic race?*—It is another branch of the Caucasian variety, which settled in the British Islands, in France, and in other parts of Europe, at a very early period.

10. *Describe the Mongolian variety.*—The Mongolians are so called from the Mongols, a people of Central Asia; they have squarish heads, flattish faces, olive complexions, and eyes pointing obliquely downwards, and they are remarkable for adherence to old usages; they inhabit Central Asia, China, Japan, and some other countries.

11. *Describe the Malayan variety.*—The Malaysians are so called from the peninsula of Malaya, in India beyond the Ganges; they have a brown skin, heads slightly narrowed at the top, and are reputed to be fierce and often treacherous.

12. *Describe the American Indian variety.*—The American Indians have a narrow head, red or copper-coloured skins, and can scarcely be induced to adopt settled habits.

13. *Describe the Negro variety.*—The negro races have black skins and eyes, receding foreheads, woolly hair; in character, they are lively and docile, and disposed to submit to a state of servitude; their native country is Africa, whence great numbers have been carried off as slaves.

14. *What is a slave?*—A slave is a person deprived of his civil rights, and who, being bought like one of the lower animals, is dependent in all respects on the will of his owner.

15. *What are civil rights?*—The right which every one has by nature to dispose of his own person, to cultivate his mind, and to improve his condition by any honest line of industry that is suitable to his capacity—the enjoyment of such rights being called *freedom*.

16. *What are serfs?*—Serfs were persons held in perpetual bondage, sometimes as domestic servants, but more frequently as rural labourers, who were sold along with the estates on which they lived.

17. *Was the condition of serfdom common?*—Yes; serfdom or some other form of slavery was common in all ancient nations; and, until lately, it existed to a large extent in Russia.

18. *What circumstances tend to degrade races of men?*—A long course of misusage, want of proper food and raiment, want of education, and hopelessness in the future, all tend to brutalise races.

19. *Is colour in the skin an effect of circumstances?*—To a certain extent this is the case; it being observable that exposure to the sun in hot climates tends to darken the complexion; but from whatever cause, the colour in the negro races is not on the surface of the skin, but seems part of the natural constitution.

20. *Explain the nature of the skin.*—The skin is a porous covering of three layers; the outer layer, which is very thin, is called the cuticle or *epidermis*; and the innermost is the *cutis vera*, or true skin; between the two is a layer of pulpy net-work, called the *rete mucosum*, in which is the colouring matter of the darker races.

21. *What are the senses?*—Sight, hearing, taste, smell, and touch.

22. *Where is the recognised seat of the mind?*—In the brain, or centre of sensation; an organ charged by Almighty Power with the functions of thought—the mind itself, which acts through the brain, being regarded as a spiritual essence destined to survive the dissolution of matter.

23. *Are we to understand that man consists of two things, a perishable body and an immortal spirit?*—Yes; it is on the basis of this immortality of the spirit or soul after death that man rests his religious hopes and feelings.

24. *What are heathens?*—People who have no proper conception of the true God, and worship idols; the word pagans has a similar meaning.

25. *In what state are mankind at present?*—A large number are in the condition of heathens and savages; others are in a half-civilised state, and in the way of improvement; and lastly, there are nations, such as those of Europe generally, in an advanced state of civilisation and refinement.

Chronology.

1. *What is Chronology?*—It is that department of knowledge which relates to the reckoning of time; the term is from the Greek *chronos*, time, and *logos*, a discourse.

2. *What is an era?*—An *era* is a period commencing with a fixed point of time, from which a series of years is begun to be reckoned—as, for example, the Christian era, dating from the birth of Christ; the Hebrew era, from the creation of the world, as narrated in Genesis; and the Roman era, from the traditionary date of the foundation of Rome, 753 B.C.

3. *When did the era of the ancient Greeks begin?*—It began with the first year of the first Olympiad, which is calculated to have commenced at midsummer 776 B.C.

4. *What is the Mohammedan era?*—It commences with the 12th of September 622 A.D., the date of the flight of Mohammed from Mecca to Medina, and is called the *Hegira* ('flight').

5. *Has every country reckoned the year as of the same length?*—No; the general ignorance of the true length of a year has given rise to considerable differences of reckoning, a circumstance which causes perplexity in comparing one era with another.

6. *What is a Solar Year?*—It is the length of time occupied by the earth in its revolution round the sun; and averages 365 days, 5 hours, 48 minutes, and 49 seconds.

7. *What was the length of the year as calculated by the ancient Egyptians?*—It was 365 days, by which short reckoning the festivals gradually shifted from their true anniversary.

8. *What was the length of year as calculated by the Greeks?*—It was $365\frac{1}{4}$ days.

9. *What was the character of the Roman reckoning?*—It was confused and unsatisfactory, until the calendar was rectified by Julius Cæsar.

10. *What was the Julian Calendar?*—It consisted in the adoption by Julius Cæsar of the Greek plan of reckoning, that the year should consist of $365\frac{1}{4}$ days. To dispose of the odd quarter, the 24th of February was doubled every fourth year; the day so interposed being called *bissextile*.

11. *What was the defect of the Julian calendar?*—It made the year about 11 minutes too long, and this extension amounted to 3 days in nearly 400 years.

12. *How long did the Julian calendar remain in use?*—Until 1582, when Pope Gregory XIII. abolished it, and instituted a new and improved calendar, which, from his name, is known as the Gregorian calendar.

13. *Describe the Gregorian Calendar.*—It consisted, in the first place, of dropping 10 days, and then rectifying the future excess of nearly 11 minutes annually.

14. *How was the excess rectified?*—By the simple plan of arranging that the last year of each century should *not* be a leap-year, unless it were also the last year of a period of four centuries. This rectification errs by only one day in 1000 years.

15. *What are 'Old' and 'New Styles'?*—They are the methods of reckoning prescribed by the Julian and Gregorian calendars.

16. *Was new style generally adopted?*—No; it was at first adopted only by Roman Catholic states; some of the chief Protestant states adopted it in 1700; Great Britain and Ireland adopted it in 1752.

17. *How was new style adopted in Great Britain and Ireland?*—It was adopted by an act of parliament, 1751, which enacted that 11 days should be omitted after the 2d of September 1752, so that the 3d day should be the 14th.

18. *What is now the difference between old and new style?*—The difference is 12 days, for as the year 1800 was not a leap-year, 1 day is added to the former number.

19. *What Christian nation still adheres to old style?*—Russia. Eastern Christians also adhere to it.

20. *Why is a leap-year so called?*—Because every fourth year a day is leaped over. Common years advance a single day; if the 1st of March is a Monday, next year it will be Tuesday; but if leap-year, it will be Wednesday—leaping over Tuesday.

21. *How do we know which is a leap-year?*—By dividing the number of the year by 4, if nothing remains, it is a leap-year. This rule, however, will not hold good with the year 1900, as it is not a four-hundredth year (see Question 14).

22. *What is meant by a Civil Year?*—It is a year as commonly reckoned, consisting of 365 days for common years, and 366 days for leap-years.

23. *When does the civil year begin and end?*—It begins at 12 o'clock midnight of the 31st of December, and ends at 12 o'clock on the night of the 31st of December.

24. *When did the ancients begin the year?*—The Athenians

began the year in June; the Romans first in March, and afterwards in January—the practice was very various.

25. *What was the practice previous to the reform of the calendar?*—The common legal practice was to begin the year on the 25th of March—a most awkward arrangement, for the early part of March belonged legally to one year, and the latter part to another. To add to the confusion, the 1st of January was popularly recognised as the beginning of the year.

26. *When was the New-year's Day changed from the 25th of March to the 1st of January?*—This change was effected gradually. The 1st of January was adopted legally by France in 1563, by Scotland in 1600, and by England and Ireland at the change of the style, 1752.

27. *Give an example of the method of writing the dates of events previous to 1752.*—The execution of Charles I. offers a well-known example. It occurred January 30, 1648—1649: that is to say, 1648 by the old reckoning, and 1649 by the reckoning now in use.

28. *When does a century begin and end?*—It begins with 1, and ends with 100; for example, the 18th century began with 1701, and ended with 1800; accordingly, 1801 was the first year in the 19th century.

29. *What is the origin of the term 'Month'?*—It signified originally the time occupied by the moon in revolving round the earth, which is rather more than $29\frac{1}{2}$ days; 28 days are sometimes, for convenience, called a lunar month.

30. *What is a Civil or Calendar Month?*—It is a certain number of days, 30 or 31, in all the months but February, which has 28 in common, and 29 in leap-years.

31. *When were the months named and arranged?*—The calendar months, twelve in number, received their names from the Romans, and were arranged by Julius Cæsar almost as they now appear.

32. *Mention why the present names were given to the respective months by the Romans—*

1. January is so called from Janus, who, according to the Roman mythology, was god of the year, and presided over the commencement of all undertakings.

2. February takes its name from the Latin *februo*, I purify; because in this month the Romans had certain religious ceremonials designed for moral purification.

3. March is named from Mars, the god of war, and suppose father of Romulus, the founder of Rome.

4. April is derived from *aperio*, to open, because in this month vegetation began to open and bud.

5. May is either from *majores*, old men, or from *Maria*, mother of Mercury, to whom sacrifices were made on the first day.

6. June is either from Juno, or from *juniores*, young men, to whom the month was dedicated.

7. July is from Julius, and was so named by Augustus, in honour of Julius Cæsar.

8. August is named in honour of Augustus.

9. September is from *septem*, seven; this having been the seventh month, when the Romans began the year with March.

10. October; 11. November; 12. December; these names respectively signify eighth, ninth, and tenth, and were given when March was reckoned the first month.

33. *How did the Romans divide the month?*—They divided the month into three periods—*Calends*, *Nones*, and *Ides*, and an event was said to have occurred so many days before these divisions, as the case might be.

34. *Had the Greeks calends?*—No; hence the ironical Roman phrase, *ad Græcas Calendas*, ‘at the Greek calends,’ meaning *never*. When a thing is said to be postponed ‘to the Greek calends,’ it is equivalent to saying that it ‘will never take place.’

35. *What is a week?*—It is a period of seven days, or about a quarter of a lunar month; the week is a very ancient division of time, not only among the Hebrews, as derived from the seven days of creation, but among the ancient Egyptians, Chinese, and Hindus.

36. *What is the origin of the English names of the days of the week?*—The names are derived from the Saxons and Scandinavians, and are as follows: Sunday, is named from the Sun; Monday, from the Moon; Tuesday, from *Tuesco*, the god of war; Wednesday, from Woden, the chief Scandinavian deity; Thursday, from Thor, the Saxon god of thunder; Friday, from Friga, the wife of Woden; and Saturday, from Seater, the Scandinavian equivalent for Saturn.

37. *What are the names of the days of the week employed in the records of parliament?*—*Dies Solis*, for Sunday; *Dies Luna*, Monday; *Dies Martis*, Tuesday; *Dies Mercurii*, Wednesday; *Dies Jovis*, Thursday; *Dies Veneris*, Friday; and *Dies Saturni*, Saturday.

38. *What is the origin of these Latin names?*—They are derived from the names of heathen deities, according to the Roman mythology. The French names of the days of the week are for the most part derived from these Latin names—for example, *Mercredi*, Wednesday; and *Mardi*, Tuesday.

39. *What is the origin of the word 'Sabbath'?*—Sabbath is from a Hebrew word signifying *rest*, and was applied to the last or seventh day of the week, because God is represented as having rested from the work of creation on that day, and ordained in commemoration of that event, that the day should ever be marked by a total cessation of labour. Among Christians, Sunday is the day of rest or Sabbath, and is otherwise termed the '*Lord's Day*.'

40. *When did the Hebrews begin their weekly Sabbath?*—They began it at sunset on the sixth day (Friday), and ended it at sunset on the seventh (Saturday); this arrangement being determined by Scriptural phraseology—'and the evening and the morning were the first day.'

41. *Has any attempt ever been made to substitute new divisions of time for the ordinary months and weeks?*—Yes; the French revolutionists, attempted by law to introduce a new calendar; in 1793 they decreed that the era of the republic should begin with, or be dated from, the 22d of September 1792.

42. *What principle did the French adopt as regards the months?*—They divided the year into twelve months of 30 days each, leaving the extra five days in common years, and six in leap-years to be devoted to festivals or holidays.

43. *Mention the names of the months according to the French revolutionary calendar.*—Beginning with the 22d of September, they had as follows; *Vendemiaire*, or Vintage month; *Brumaire*, Fog month; *Frimaire*, Sleet month; *Nivose*, Snow month; *Pluviose*, Rain month; *Ventose*, Wind month; *Germinal*, Spring or Sprouting month; *Floreale*, Flower month; *Prairial*, Pasture month; *Messidor*, Harvest month; *Thermidor*, Hot month; and *Fructidor*, Fruit month.

44. *Mention the festivals on the extra five days?*—The 1st festival (September 17) was dedicated to the Virtues; the 2d to Genius; the 3d to Labour; the 4th to Opinion; and the 5th to Rewards.

45. *What did the French substitute for weeks?*—They divided each month into three parts of ten days each. These parts were called *Decades*, from the Greek word *deca*, ten.

46. *What were the names of the days in a Decade?*—The names, adopted, with the exception of the last, from the Latin numerals, signifying first day, second day, &c., were as follows: *Primidi*, *Duodi*, *Tridi*, *Quartidi*, *Quintidi*, *Sextidi*, *Septidi*, *Octidi*, *Nonidi*, and *Decadi*. The last day, *Decadi*, was the day of rest.

47. *How long was the French revolutionary calendar in use?*

—It remained in use until, by a decree of Napoleon, the old calendar was resumed on the 1st of January 1806.

48. *What is a Cycle?*—A cycle is a circle or period of time, on the completion of which certain phenomena return in the same order.

49. *Describe a Lunar Cycle.*—A lunar cycle is a period of nineteen solar years, during which the phases of the moon occur differently every year, and after which they recommence in the same order.

50. *What is a Metonic Cycle?*—That is a name often given to a lunar cycle, and is so called from its discoverer, Meton, who flourished at Athens about 432 B.C.

51. *Why does a Lunar or Metonic Cycle occupy nineteen years?*—Because the period of nineteen years is nearly equal to 235 lunations (revolutions of the moon round the earth), and it is only after going through this circle of time, that the new and full moons occur on the same day of the year as previously.

52. *What is the 'Golden Number?'*—It is the number of any year in the series of nineteen composing a lunar cycle. For example, the golden number of the first year is 1, and of the last year 19.

53. *Why is it called the 'Golden Number?'*—Because the number of each year in the lunar or Metonic cycle was ordered by the Greeks to be inscribed in letters of gold on pillars of marble.

54. *How do we learn what is the golden number of any particular year?*—By a simple arithmetical calculation, based on the principle that in the year 1 B.C. the new moon fell on the 1st of January, and will fall on the same day every 19th year from that time.

55. *Give the rule for finding the golden number.*—Add 1 to the number of years, and divide by 19; the quotient will be the number of cycles since 1 B.C., and the remainder will be the golden number; if there be no remainder, then 19 is the golden number, and that year is the last of the cycle.

56. *Present an example.*—Wanted to know the golden number for 1885, add 1, which will make 1886; divide by 19, the quotient is 99, and the remainder is 5, which is the golden number for 1885—in other words, the lunar cycle which comprehends 1885 began in 1881.

57. *What is the rule for determining Easter in any particular year?*—Easter is always the first Sunday after first full moon on or after the 21st of March. The Easter festival is

therefore never before the 22d of March, or after the 25th of April.

58. *What is a Sidereal day?*—It is the time occupied by the earth in its diurnal rotation, which is 23 hours, 56 minutes, and 4 seconds.

59. *Why is the term 'sidereal' employed?*—Because, on making a complete rotation, the earth has the same spot opposite a fixed star—the term sidereal being from the Latin *sidus*, a star.

60. *What is a Solar day?*—It is the time occupied by the earth in returning to the same position relative to the sun, which is, on an average, 24 hours.

61. *Why should the earth require 24 hours to return to be opposite the sun, while it returns to be opposite a star in 23 hours, 56 minutes, and 4 seconds?*—Because stars are fixed points in the heavens, while the sun daily shifts a little in its relative position.

62. *What is a Civil day?*—It is a solar day, or, more strictly, 24 hours, which length of time is adopted as a convenient measurement by civil society.

63. *What is meant by 'mean time'?*—It is time as shewn by clocks and watches, which give only a regular average of 24 hours a day, and not the precise length of the fluctuating solar day. This general average, one part of the year with another, is *mean time*.

64. *Do sun-dials shew mean time?*—No; sun-dials indicate the exact or true time according to the sun, and therefore do not correspond exactly with clocks and watches.

65. *How has the civil day been divided?*—Into 24 hours, each hour consisting of 60 minutes, and each minute consisting of 60 seconds. Usually, the 24 hours of the day are divided into two portions of 12 hours each—12 o'clock midnight to 12 o'clock noon, and 12 o'clock noon to 12 o'clock midnight.

66. *Is the division of time into hours natural or artificial?*—The division is quite artificial; there is nothing in nature to suggest any uniform subdivision of the day.

67. *How are the hours designated?*—The hours from 12 noon to midnight are designated *post meridiem* (after mid-day), and the hours from midnight to noon are said to be *ante meridiem* (before mid-day). The abbreviations P. M. and A. M. are ordinarily employed.

68. *When does the civil day begin?*—Immediately after

12 o'clock midnight, but this is a comparatively modern arrangement.

69. *What is Horology?*—It is the department of chronology referring to hours and their subdivisions; the term is from two Greek words signifying hour and discourse.

70. *When were clocks invented for measuring time?*—The earliest known clock was invented by Henry de Vic or De Wyck, a German, in 1379; but the pendulum, as a regulating power in clocks, was introduced by Huygens, a celebrated Dutch astronomer, as late as 1657.

Language, Literature, &c.

1. *What is Philology?*—It is the science which treats of the nature and relations of languages.

2. *What is Etymology?*—It is a department of Philology devoted to the examination of words, as regards their origin and formation.

3. *How many languages are there in the world?*—There are many hundreds, but certain groups of them are so like one another, that the members of each group may be considered as varieties of one tongue.

4. *What are the Semitic languages?*—They are those languages spoken by the nations which sprung immediately from Shem, one of the sons of Noah; to this class belong the Hebrew, the Chaldee, and the Arabic.

5. *What are the Indo-Germanic or Indo-European languages?*—They are a numerous class, prevailing in Asia and Europe, traceable to tribes who at a remote period called themselves Aryans, and who peopled the north of India and Persia: to this group belong the Sanscrit, Hindustani, Greek, Latin, Celtic, German, English, and many other tongues.

6. *What is meant by 'classical language?'*—The term is applied to a pure and dignified form of language, adapted for expressing the higher order of thoughts; the word *classical* is from the Latin *classis*, signifying a class or order of Roman citizens.

7. *Which languages are ordinarily spoken of as classical?*—The ancient Greek and Latin languages, both now disused as spoken tongues, but known to us by the finest compositions of ancient literature. It is also customary to speak of the Sanscrit as the classical language of India.

8. *What is meant by the 'divarication of languages?'*—It means the breaking of a language into two or more separate languages, through corruptions and other circumstances.

9. *Give an example.*—The modern French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese are divarications of the Latin; the peculiarities in each being traceable to some local circumstances.

10. *What is a Dialect?*—It is a peculiar or local form of a language; the Lowland Scotch speech, for example, is regarded as a dialect of the English.

11. *What is meant by a 'patois?'*—'Patois' is a French term for the corrupted dialect spoken by the illiterate classes, which is rarely seen in literature.

12. *What is Literature?*—It is the writing contained in books in ancient and modern times, and has a variety of departments—history, theology, philosophy, poetry, prose fiction, and other kinds of writing.

13. *Of what does ancient literature chiefly consist?*—Of the writings of the Hebrews, Chinese, Hindus, Greeks, and Romans.

14. *What are the best specimens of ancient Hebrew literature?*—The books of the Old Testament.

15. *What is the Talmud?*—It is the name given to the book which comprehends the Jewish law, both written and oral, together with the commentaries of learned Hebrews. Those who attach importance to these traditions are called Talmudists. The word *Talmud* is from the Hebrew *lamad*, to teach.

16. *What is meant by 'the Canon of Scripture?'*—It signifies the Scriptures which have been established as authentic by the decision of councils of the church; the term *canon*, in Greek, means a rule or standard. The 'sacred canon' comprehends the whole of the Scriptures except the Apocrypha.

17. *What is meant by the Apocrypha?*—The term *Apocrypha* is from a Greek word signifying that which is hidden, but latterly anything spurious, or false, or without authority; it is now applied to certain books which have been rejected from the canon of Scripture as being of doubtful authenticity, or not worthy to be included in the Holy Bible.

18. *What is the meaning of the word 'Bible?'*—It is from the Greek *biblos*, a book, and is applied to the whole of the Old and New Testament Scriptures.

19. *What are the languages in which the Bible was originally written?*—The old Testament was written mainly in

Hebrew, but partly also in Chaldee, and the New Testament in Greek.

20. *What is meant by a 'Targum'?*—The word *targum* is Hebrew, and signifies *interpretation*; it is applied to certain ancient Chaldee versions of the Pentateuch and other parts of Scripture; also to some versions of more modern date; there are therefore several Targums.

21. *What is Rabbinical Literature?*—It consists of a vast array of works, chiefly in Hebrew and Arabic, by learned *rabbis* (masters or teachers), which treat mainly of questions springing out of the law, but occasionally branching out into the wider realms of philosophy, history, grammar, and poetry. Rabbinical literature began after the return from captivity; in fact, it is just another name for Jewish literature.

22. *Who were the Essenes?*—They were a fraternity among the Jews previous to and after the birth of Christ: their history is involved in considerable obscurity, but it is known that they were ascetics who aspired to excessive ceremonial purity according to the Levitical law.

23. *Who were the Gnostics?*—They were early Christian sects, who derived their name from the Greek word *gnosis*, knowledge, as applied to revealed religion. They considered that, from their superior philosophical perceptions, they had come to 'know' the nature of those truths which common Christians could only 'believe.' Hence they elevated *Gnosis* above *Pistis* (faith). The religious belief of the Gnostics was tinged with the mysticism of the East and the philosophy of the Greeks.

24. *What was the Septuagint?*—It was a Greek version of the original Hebrew Old Testament, executed, according to the story recorded by Josephus and Philo, about 280 years B.C., and was so called from being, according to the story recorded by Josephus, the work of *seventy*, or, more strictly, *seventy-two* translators.

25. *What is meant by 'the Vulgate'?*—It signifies a translation of the Scriptures into Latin—which was the vulgar or common tongue of the Romans—and is said to have been executed about 380 A.D.

26. *When was the first English version of the whole Bible executed?*—In 1535, by Myles Coverdale; but the New Testament and a part of the Old had been executed a few years previously by William Tyndale.

27. *When was the present authorised version of the Bible executed?*—It was prepared between 1607—1610, by a body of eminent scholars, at the request of James I. of England,

and is prized for its fidelity; a considerable portion of it, however, is taken from the previous excellent version of Tyndale.

28. *What is meant by 'an apostle?'*—The term apostle is from the Greek *apostolos*, signifying one who is deputed or sent from—that is, 'from God,' and is applied in the New Testament to one who is commissioned to preach the Gospel of Christ.

29. *What is meant by 'Gospel?'*—Gospel is from the Saxon *god* or *good*, and *spell*, a narration, and signifies a good history, or intelligence of good events—good news.

30. *What was the ancient form of books?'*—Books were originally written on finely-prepared skins or parchment, united together in rolls; all the Scriptures in use among the ancient Hebrews were in this form.

31. *What was papyrus?'*—It was a preparation of the stems of the papyrus, an Egyptian plant, employed as a substitute for parchment; the word *paper* is derived from the *papyrus*.

32. *What is the origin of the word 'library?'*—It is from *liber*, Latin for book.

33. *Explain the origin of the word 'volume.'*—The books of the Romans were in the form of rolls wound round small wooden rollers; these roll-books were called *volumina*—hence the English word *volume*.

34. *How were books prepared before the invention of printing?'*—Among the Greeks and Romans, by professional transcribers, who were usually employed to write copies of books for general circulation; in the middle ages, when books assumed their present shape, the work of transcription was executed by certain industrious orders of monks. The process of transcription was tedious and costly.

35. *What are Palimpsests?'*—A palimpsest is a book in parchment, from which the ancient classical writing was effaced, in order that the pages might receive writing of a later, generally monkish kind—the want of paper necessitating this extraordinary expedient: the word *palimpsest* is from two Greek words, signifying to efface and to use again.

36. *Where are palimpsests to be seen?'*—A few may be seen in libraries and museums; in some instances, the original writing in a palimpsest has been recovered by a chemical preparation.

37. *What is 'Bibliography?'*—Bibliography is a term applied to the proper cataloguing and describing of books; the person who undertakes such work is called a bibliographer.

38. *What is the 'Index Expurgatorius'?*—It is the name given to a catalogue of books which papal authority has prohibited being read by members of the Roman Catholic Church, on account of their supposed heretical or otherwise improper character. The business of the tribunal is conducted by a special body of officials at Rome.

39. *How did the term 'Stationer' originate?*—When books were multiplied by the invention of printing, they were sold by booksellers at stalls *stationed* at the gates of universities and other places; hence, booksellers became known as *stationarii*, or stationers, by which designation they were long chiefly known.

40. *What are the Vedas?*—They are the most ancient and most authoritative Hindu books on religious subjects. They are in Sanscrit.

41. *What are the Puranas?*—They are later Hindu writings containing the creeds and rites of the various Hindu sects of modern times.

42. *What is the Shaster?*—*Shaster* or *Shastra* means simply a book; but the term is especially applied to the *authoritative* religious and legal books of the Hindus.

43. *Who was Confucius?*—He was a Chinese sage and moralist, who was born about 550 B.C., and wrote several works inculcating justice, honesty, benevolence, and other virtues, which have been greatly esteemed. The peculiar interest attaching to Confucius lies in this, that his system of religion, or rather morality, is regarded as the most faithful expression of the Chinese mind.

44. *What is the Koran?*—It is the sacred book or bible of the Mohammedans, composed in Arabic by Mohammed; the word *Koran* is from the Arabic *karua*, to read or teach.

45. *What was the Zendavesta?*—It was the sacred book or bible of the ancient Persians, so called from the *Zend* language, which formerly prevailed in Persia; it is ascribed in part to Zoroaster.

46. *What are the two great varieties of literature?*—Prose and poetry.

47. *What is Poetry?*—It is any production of the imagination expressed in language or loftily-conceived thoughts expressed in spoken or written words.

48. *Must poetry be in the form of verse?*—No; it often appears in the form of prose, as is exemplified in Job and some other books in the Old Testament, also in the poems of Ossian.

49. *What are the principal kinds of poetry?*—The Epic, the

Lyric, and the Dramatic; there are likewise Didactic and some other varieties of poetical composition.

50. *What is Epic poetry?*—Epic is from the Greek *epos*, a word, a discourse, or narrative; an epic poem is a narrative of events, which may be either real or fictitious, or partly both. The heroic epic, such as the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* of Homer, or the *Paradise Lost* of Milton, is considered the grandest species of poetical composition.

51. *What is Lyric poetry?*—Lyric is from the Greek *lyra*, a lyre; lyric poetry is so called from having been originally accompanied by the music of the lyre. It concerns itself with the more delicate emotions, and embraces songs of the affections and feelings.

52. *Mention some of the varieties of lyrics.*—Hymns or spiritual songs, anthems, love-songs, war-songs, elegies, and odes.

53. *What is an Ode?*—Ode is from the Greek, and signifies literally a song; but it is applied specially to songs or verses which consist of passionate addresses to persons and things.

54. *What is an Idyll?*—Idyll is from a Greek word signifying a little image, and is usually applied to any poem depicting simple scenes of pastoral or village life.

55. *Give an example of an idyll.*—The Book of Ruth is an idyll; and so likewise are Burns's *Cottar's Saturday Night*, Goldsmith's *Deserted Village*, and many of the poems of George Crabbe.

56. *What is Dramatic poetry?*—The word drama is from the Greek *draō*, I act, and by dramatic poetry is signified the poetical representation of human actions and conversations on the stage.

57. *What is said to have been the original form of the drama?*—The drama received its earliest development among the Greeks, and consisted originally of choral songs delivered by one or two persons.

58. *Who was Thespis?*—Thespis was a Greek who flourished 536 B.C., and is said to have introduced regular conversations into the choral songs at the festivals of Bacchus, thereby promoting the introduction of tragedy.

59. *What is Tragedy?*—The term tragedy is derived from the Greek *tragōdia*, which is from *tragos*, a goat, and *ōdē*, a song. The ordinary explanation of the origin of this name is, that a goat was given as a prize to the singers of the dialogues which composed the representation. Tragedy

is applied to any drama of a grave kind, the opposite of comedy.

60. *What is Comedy?*—Comedy is derived from the Greek *kōmos*, a revel, or *kōmē*, a village, and signifies literally a reveller's song, or the village song; in its character comedy is sportive, witty, and amusing.

61. *What is an Opera?*—It is a musical drama, in which the dialogues are sung, much in the manner of the ancient choral tragedies of the Greeks; it is, however, a modern form of composition, taking its name from the Italian *opera*, a work.

62. *What is the libretto of an opera?*—It is the words of the piece, which are only a peg on which to hang the music; the term *libretto* is Italian for 'a little book.'

63. *What is Metre?*—It is a measured succession of syllables, forming verse; the term *metre* signifying measure. In the classical languages, metre depended upon the way in which long and short syllables were made to succeed each other; but English metre depends on the succession of a certain number of accented and unaccented syllables.

64. *What is Blank Verse?*—It is metre without rhymes.

65. *What is Rhyme?*—It is a correspondence of sounds in certain syllables, most commonly the terminating syllables in verses. Rhymes are often by mistake called poetry; there may be rhymes where there is no poetical fancy, but only a jingle of words.

66. *Is rhyme ancient?*—It has been known from the earliest times; but the systematic use of final rhymes, was first introduced in the Latin hymns of the middle ages.

67. *What are Alexandrines?* They are rhyming verses, consisting each of twelve syllables or six measures; the term is supposed to be derived from an old French poem on Alexander the Great, belonging to the 12th or 13th century, in which this long measure was used.

68. *What is the Spenserian stanza?*—It is a group or series of metrical rhymes, each line consisting of ten syllables except the last, which has twelve, or is an Alexandrine; it is called Spenserian, from having been first employed in English by Spenser in his poem, the *Fairy Queen*.

69. *What were the Delphin classics?*—They were a series of editions, with notes, of the Greek and Latin classic authors, prepared by 39 of the best scholars in France, by order of Louis XIV., for the education of his son, the Dauphin—in Latin *Delphinus*. The books were described as '*In usum Delphini*,' or for the use of the Dauphin; hence the term 'Delphin classic'

70. *What is meant by 'liberty of the press?'*—It is the liberty of printing books and newspapers without license or the control of a censor. This liberty in its fullest extent is now enjoyed in the United Kingdom—authors and publishers, however, being accountable at law for attacks on private character, or for incitements to public disorder.

71. *What is 'a censorship?'*—It is an authority asserted by the state to scrutinise the products of the press, and to restrain them from being issued if they seem objectionable or dangerous to the ruling power. A censorship, more or less strict, exists in nearly every continental country.

Greek and Roman Philosophy and Literature.

1. *What was the period most distinguished for philosophy and literature in Greece?*—It was a period extending from about 500 B.C. to 146 B.C.; but there were many distinguished men earlier and also later.

2. *Who were the 'Seven Wise Men of Greece?'*—These were seven persons noted for their sagacity as philosophers and statesmen at an early period of Greek history; they were Periander of Corinth, Pittacus, Thales, Solon, Bias, Chilon, and Cleobulus.

3. *What is meant by Philosophy?*—Any systematic inquiries into the nature of things, physical or mental; the term is from the Greek *phileo*, I love, and *sophia*, wisdom.

4. *What is Mental Philosophy?*—That branch of philosophy which treats of the mind; it is sometimes called Psychology—*psyche*, in Greek, for soul or mind.

5. *What is meant by Metaphysics?*—The term metaphysics is sometimes used as another name for mental philosophy; but in its more proper sense it denotes certain abstruse speculations concerning the nature of knowledge.

6. *What is Logic?*—It is the art of reasoning, and is so called from a Greek word signifying discourse.

7. *What is meant by Ethics?*—It is a word from the Greek, and is applied to the science which treats of the nature and grounds of moral obligation. This science is also called Moral Philosophy.

8. *Who was Homer?*—He was the earliest and greatest of the Greek poets, who lived probably about the 9th century B.C.; but the place of his birth is unknown. Homer's two great works are the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*; both are of a heroic character, and abound in lofty sentiment.

9. *Who was Hesiod?*—Next to Homer, he was the earliest of the Greek poets, and flourished in the 8th century B.C. Hesiod's poems are not like those of Homer, but portray peaceful pursuits and a simple style of life; they also illustrate the mythological notions of the time.

10. *Who was Sappho?*—She was a celebrated Greek poetess, born in the Isle of Lesbos about 600 B.C.; her poems were of the lyrical kind, highly finished in language, and abounding in tenderness of sentiment. It is this poetess to whom Lord Byron refers in his verses, the *Isles of Greece*—

‘Where burning Sappho loved and sung.’

11. *Who was Æschylus?*—He was an eminent writer of tragedies, born 525 B.C., and is usually styled ‘the father of tragedy.’ Seven of his numerous tragedies are preserved, and are noted for grandeur of ideas and elegance of expression.

12. *Who was Pindar?*—He was a famed Greek poet, born about 520 B.C.; his poems are of a lofty, heroic nature, chiefly in praise of the victors at the Olympic, Pythian, and other Greek festivals, and were favourites with Alexander the Great.

13. *Who was Sophocles?*—He was a celebrated Greek dramatist, born 495 B.C., whose tragedies, more particularly his *Antigone* and *Edipus*, are highly admired for their depth and tenderness of feeling, and their harmony of versification.

14. *Who was Euripides?*—He was a celebrated Greek dramatist, born 480 B.C., and, after Æschylus and Sophocles, with whom he was contemporary, ranks as the third great writer of Greek tragedy.

15. *Who was Æsop?*—He is said to have been a freed Greek slave, who lived in the middle of the 6th century B.C. He became famous for teaching morality by means of fables, in which the lower animals are introduced as actors. Besides this little is known regarding him. The fables ascribed to Æsop are well known in English and some other modern languages.

16. *Who was Pythagoras?*—He was a Greek philosopher, a native of Samos, where he was born about 570 B.C. Pythagoras has left no works; and it is therefore questionable

whether he is to be held responsible for every doctrine that goes under his name. His disciples probably modified or exaggerated these according to their own predilections. The two great doctrines associated with his name are, first, 'that number is the origin of all things,' and second, the belief in metempsychosis or the transmigration of souls.

17. *Who was Æsculapius?*—He was a physician rendered famous by Homer, of whom there are numerous mythological fables, and who is renowned as the father of the healing art. Æsculapius is always represented as a man with a long beard, holding a knotty staff, around which twines a serpent, and at his feet is placed a cock, and sometimes a dog, emblematic of watchfulness.

18. *Who was Hippocrates?*—He was an eminent Greek physician, belonging to a family that claimed to be descended from Æsculapius, and was born about 460 B.C. Hippocrates systematised the medical art, and left various writings, still valued for their sound views concerning the art of preserving health.

19. *Who was Aristophanes?*—He was a native of Athens, born 444 B.C., and renowned as a writer of comedies, which were generally of a satiric character; his comedies are prized for their wealth of fancy and beauty of style. The choruses in particular often display the purest spirit of poetry.

20. *Who was Aristotle?*—He was a celebrated Greek philosopher, born 384 B.C., whose writings were of a most comprehensive nature, including logic, or a method of formal reasoning. Alexander the Great was educated under Aristotle.

21. *Who was the 'Stagyrite?'*—Aristotle has been called the Stagyrte from having been born at Stageira, a Greek colonial town; his fame, however, rests on his teaching in the Lyceum near Athens.

22. *How did the term Lyceum originate?*—The school in the neighbourhood of Athens at which Aristotle taught received the name Lyceum, from being situated near the temple consecrated to *Apollo Lukeios* (Apollo the wolf-slayer). Institutions at which the Aristotelian philosophy was afterwards taught, were from this origin called lyceums, and the term lyceum is now often applied to any educational institute.

23. *What was the 'Peripatetic Philosophy?'*—It was the philosophy of Aristotle, which he usually taught while walking (*peripateo*, 'I walk about') in the shady groves of the Lyceum; hence his followers were called *Peripatetics*.

24. *How long did the Aristotelian philosophy retain its*

influence?—It was embraced among other systems by the Romans, was taught under the auspices of the church in the middle ages, and kept its place in universities till displaced by modern and more correct teaching.

25. *What did the ancient philosophers teach as regards the structure of the universe?*—They taught that the earth is stationary in the centre of the heavens, and that the sun revolves around it—a theory which was maintained in the schools and by the world generally until the discoveries of Copernicus.

26. *What was the 'Primum Mobile'?*—In the ancient astronomy, usually called the Ptolemaic system, the primum mobile was an outer or tenth sphere, which was supposed to revolve round the earth in twenty-four hours, and to carry all the other spheres of the heavenly bodies along with it.

27. *Who was Socrates?*—He was a Greek philosopher, born 470 B.C., whose character and teaching were equally pure and noble. Alcibiades, Crito, Xenophon, Aristippus, Phædon, Plato, and other noted men were among his pupils.

28. *What is the 'Socratic method of reasoning'?*—It is, when arguing, to ask questions, by answering which an adversary unconsciously makes certain fatal admissions. Socrates resorted to this device, in order to force his pupils to think for themselves, and be on their guard against fallacies.

29. *What were the principal doctrines of Socrates?*—He taught that there is but one Divine Being, whose favour can only be propitiated by a blameless life; at the same time Socrates sacrificed and prayed at the heathen altars of his country.

30. *What was the fate of Socrates?*—He was accused of denying the ancient divinities of the state, and of perverting the religion of his pupils; on which charge he was condemned by the ruling faction to death, and died by drinking a bowl of poison, B.C. 399. Few of the ancients have merited such profound admiration as Socrates.

31. *Who was Theophrastus?*—He was a famous Greek philosopher and naturalist, born 371 B.C. He succeeded Aristotle as a teacher at Athens, and composed a number of works concerning plants, stones, and other natural objects; but his fame rests chiefly on his work, entitled *Ethical Characters*, which shews an intimate knowledge of mankind.

32. *Who were the Sophists?*—They were a class of reasoners contemporary with Socrates and Pericles, who took their designation from *sophos*, wise; but they brought reasoning

into contempt by endeavouring to cast uncertainty over the most obvious truths. Hence, specious arguments are called *sophistry*.

33. *Who was Plato?*—He was an eminent Greek philosopher, born about 429 B.C. His original name was Aristocles, and he was called Plato, from *platus*, broad, on account of the breadth of his chest and forehead. Instructed by Socrates, Plato adopted lofty views of nature and of the aspirations of the human soul, which he taught in the groves of Academeia.

34. *What was the Academeia?*—It was a spot where Plato taught, in the neighbourhood of Athens, which was said to have been presented to the citizens for gymnastic exercises by the mythic hero Academus, and hence its name. Hence the English *Academy*, now applied to any school of a superior kind.

35. *What is meant by 'Platonic affection?'*—It is a phrase derived from a doctrine of Plato, to the effect that happiness consists in a 'union of kindred souls in the love and zealous search for truth.'

36. *Who were the Cynics?*—They were a sect of Greek philosophers noted for the morose and snarling character of their doctrines; whence, perhaps, their name, which means doggish or dog-like; though Cynics is more probably only an adapted abbreviation from the name of the gymnasium where Antisthenes taught, which was called *Cynosarges*; the sect was established by Antisthenes, a pupil of Socrates, who was born B.C. 426.

37. *Who was Diogenes?*—He was a Greek philosopher at Athens, of the sect of the Cynics; he inveighed against every species of luxury, and practised the most rigid temperance, along with a sacrifice of every personal comfort. It is said that at night he slept in a tub, but this statement rests on no good authority. Diogenes, who must be considered a philosophical fanatic, died 324 B.C.

38. *Who was Zeno?*—He was a Greek philosopher, born about 366 B.C.; after finishing his studies at Athens under the Cynics, he founded a sect of his own, called the Stoics.

39. *Why were the followers of Zeno called Stoics?*—From the spacious painted porch—*stoa* being Greek for porch—in which their master taught.

40. *What was the nature of the Stoical philosophy?*—It was less severe than that of the Cynics, which it ultimately absorbed; yet it inculcated a certain callousness of feeling, and even sanctioned the principle of self-destruction.

41. *Who was Democritus?*—He was a Greek philosopher, born about 470 or 460 B.C., who taught the doctrine of the eternal existence of atoms.

42. *What was the Eleatic School?*—It was a philosophical sect which took its name from *E'lea*, a town in Italy. The Eleatic philosophy was established by Xenophanes, and expounded by Parmenides and Zeno. Its most flourishing period was between 540 and 460 B.C.

43. *Who were the Epicureans?*—They were followers of Epicurus, a Greek philosopher, born 341 B.C., who taught that pleasure apart from vicious or sensual indulgences is the chief good. From a misapprehension of his doctrines, those who take inordinate delight in eating and drinking have been called Epicureans.

44. *Who was Herodotus?*—He was the earliest Greek historian, born 484 B.C., and for this reason he has been called the 'Father of History.' After visiting Egypt, Palestine, Assyria, and other countries, and when advanced in life, he wrote his famous work. The geographic accounts of Herodotus have been generally verified by recent travellers, and are prized for their accuracy.

45. *Who was Thucydides?*—He was the most philosophical of all ancient historians, a contemporary of Herodotus, and born in 471 B.C.; his great work is a history of the Peloponnesian war, noted for accuracy of research, profundity of conception, and dignity of style.

46. *Who was Xenophon?*—He was a celebrated Greek historian and general, born about 450 B.C., and was a pupil of Socrates, of whom he has left *Memorabilia*. Xenophon commanded the Greek forces in their retreat from Persia, of which event he gives an account in his *Anabasis*, his best known work. On account of the style in which his works are written, they are much used as school-books for the study of Greek.

47. *Who was Theocritus?*—He was a Greek poet, who flourished about 280 B.C.; his poetry is written in the Doric dialect, and is rich in simple pastoral subjects.

48. *Who was Euclid?*—He was an eminent mathematician, born at Alexandria about 300 A.D., and belonged to what is termed the Alexandrian school of learning. Euclid's great work was his *Elements of Geometry*, which is still used as a text-book.

49. *Who was Archimedes?*—He was a celebrated Greek mathematician and writer on mechanics, born about 287 B.C.;

his reputation rests chiefly on his discoveries in mechanics and hydrostatics.

50. *Who was Plotinus?*—He was a Greek philosopher at Alexandria, born 205 A.D., who is famed as the most original and speculative thinker among the Neo-Platonists.

51. *What was Neo-Platonism?*—The word *neo* is from the Greek *neos*, new, and by Neo-Platonism is meant certain new doctrines founded on those of Plato; these new doctrines gradually assumed a religious form, which proved antagonistic to Christianity.

52. *Who was Porphyrius?*—He was the most distinguished pupil of Plotinus, and was born 233 A.D. In his teaching, Neo-Platonism took a distinctively anti-Christian tendency.

53. *Who was Polybius?*—He was an eminent Greek historian, born about 204 B.C., whose work embraces the history of Rome from its capture by the Gauls down to the subjugation of Macedonia. The history of Polybius occupies a very high rank.

54. *Who was Aristarchus?*—He was a Greek grammarian and critic who lived at Alexandria about 150 B.C., and was noted for his labours in connection with the text of Homer. His principles of criticism were exceedingly strict; hence, a severe but just critic is sometimes called a 'modern Aristarchus.'

55. *Who was Dionysius of Halicarnassus?*—He was a learned Greek historian, critic, and rhetorician, born about 50 B.C. His most valuable work is his *History of Rome*.

56. *Who was Diodorus Siculus?*—He was one of the later Greek historians who flourished about the beginning of the Christian era; his work, called the *Bibliotheca* or Library, purports to be a history of the world from the Creation till the Gallic wars of Julius Cæsar: but what survives of it is of little practical value.

57. *Mention two later Greek geographers.*—Strabo, born about 66 B.C., and Pausanias, who lived in the 2d century of our era; from their writings, in addition to those of Herodotus and Ptolemy of Alexandria, who flourished about 139 A.D., we derive our chief information respecting ancient countries.

58. *Who was Plutarch?*—He was an accomplished Greek writer, who lived some time in Rome, about 80 A.D., and there taught philosophy. Plutarch's reputation rests on his well-known *Lives* of distinguished Greek and Roman personages; no one in ancient or modern times has excelled him as a biographer.

59. *Who was Lucian?*—He was a Greek writer celebrated for his ingenuity and wit; his best known works are his *Dialogues of the Gods* and *Dialogues of the Dead*, in which he satirises the mythology and philosophical sects of the Greeks. Lucian died about the end of the 2d century.

60. *Who was Longinus?*—He was an eminent Greek philosopher and rhetorician who followed the doctrines of Plato; he was employed as a tutor by Zenobia, the Greek queen of Palmyra, and on a charge of treason was beheaded by the Roman emperor Aurelian, 273 A.D.

61. *Were the Romans as distinguished for philosophy and literature as the Greeks?*—No; the Romans adopted the Greek philosophy, on which they made no distinct advance, and their imaginative literature had not the range or brilliancy of their Greek predecessors: they possessed no poet like Homer, Pindar, or Sappho; and no dramatist like Æschylus, Sophocles, or Euripides. In History and Jurisprudence, they rank higher. Livy surpasses Herodotus in style and pictorial effect, and Tacitus may vie with Thucydides.

62. *What was the most brilliant period of Roman literature?*—A space of little more than ninety years, from the dictatorship of Sulla, 81 B.C., to the death of Augustus, 14 A.D.

63. The following is a summary of Romans including one Greek, Epictetus distinguished for literature, learning, and general accomplishments.

Plautus, the greatest of all the Roman comic poets and dramatists, was born about 254 B.C. He was for some time a journeyman-baker. His works possess a strong, racy, popular humour.

Terence, born about 195 B.C., a comic dramatist, contemporary with Plautus, of inferior genius, but more refined; his comedies are esteemed for their purity of language, and also their prudential maxims.

Cicero, the greatest orator of Rome, and illustrious as a statesman and man of letters, born 106 B.C.; he has left numerous works on philosophy and rhetoric, one of the best known being *Tusculanæ Disputationes* (Tusculan Disputations).

Varro, a distinguished writer and friend of Cicero. He was the most learned and the most voluminous of all the Roman authors. He says himself that he wrote 490 books; of which only two have survived—one on agricultural matters, and another on the Latin tongue, the latter of which is very valuable.

Roscius, a very celebrated comic actor at Rome, 68 B.C..

who realised a large fortune by his profession, which he carefully studied.

Lucretius, born about 95 B.C., wrote a philosophic poem on Nature, which is regarded as the finest of didactic poems.

Sallust (Sallustius), born 86 B.C., noted for his history of Cataline's conspiracy, the wars of the Romans against Jugurtha, and some other historical writings, which are composed in a picturesque and vigorous style. Sallust was very wealthy, and lived in a splendid villa at Rome. He died 34 B.C.

Seneca, a native of Spain, but a Roman citizen, famed for his works on rhetoric and ethics; in Rome he acted as tutor to Nero; on a false charge of conspiracy he was condemned, and bled himself to death by opening his veins, 65 A.D. Seneca followed the Stoic philosophy, and his works are for the most part ethical treatises, full of practical thought, expressed in a clear, forcible, and lively manner.

Livy (Livius), the most illustrious of the Roman historians, born 59 B.C. His great work was a history of Rome, which is considered a master-piece of Latin composition; it consisted of 142 books, of which, to the regret of scholars, all are lost but 35.

Julius Cæsar, renowned as a general, statesman, and historian, was assassinated 44 B.C. Cæsar's great works are his Commentaries on the Gallic and Civil Wars, which are written from personal observation, and are noted for clearness and purity of language, and accuracy of narration. The Commentaries are a favourite Latin text-book in schools.

Ovid (Ovidius), famed for various poetical productions, was born, 43 B.C. and flourished in the reign of Augustus, by whom, for some impropriety, he was banished to Tomi, near the mouth of the Danube. His best known work is his Metamorphoses, which, in a fanciful way, gives an account of all the transformations recorded in legend, from the Creation down to the time of Julius Cæsar, the change of whom into a star forms the last of the series.

Propertius and Tibullus were two elegiac poets of Rome, contemporary with Ovid; the writings of both are admired, but those of Tibullus are considered to excel in tenderness of sentiment.

Catullus (Valerius Catullus), a native of Verona, in the north of Italy, where he was born 87 B.C. He is probably the most original, and certainly the most exquisitely impassioned of all the Latin lyrists. His finest poem is entitled *Atys*.

Horace (properly, Quintus Horatius Flaccus), a native

of the south of Italy, was born 65 B.C., and became a great favourite as a poet at Rome, in the early part of the reign of Augustus. He excelled as a lyrist; and his pieces, lively, and often satiric, are exquisitely finished. No Roman writer is so universally popular as Horace.

Virgil (properly, Publius Virgilius Maro), distinguished for his epic, didactic, and pastoral poetry; he is sometimes styled the bard of Mantua, from having been born in a village near that city, 70 B.C. Virgil was a contemporary of Horace, and died 19 B.C.: his works are the *Æneid*, *Georgics*, and *Eclogues*. The *Æneid*, an epic poem on the model of Homer's *Odyssey*, is not marked by any striking originality, but contains many mildly beautiful passages, and more descriptions of scenery than any other ancient poem. It is deservedly in repute as a text-book, from the finish of its language and versification.

Vitruvius, who flourished in the time of Augustus, is noted for his writings on architecture, and to his taste is partly imputable the Roman adaptation of Greek art.

Cornelius Nepos, a historian of the 1st century B.C., who wrote lives of distinguished warriors and statesmen; his work is used as a text-book in schools.

Phædrus, originally a slave, who for a time was in the service of Augustus; his fame rests on his fables in verse, which are much used as a school-book.

Lucan, a poet, born about 38 A.D., nephew of Seneca; his only extant work is the poem entitled *Pharsalia*, which narrates the contests of Cæsar and Pompey. Having incurred the enmity of Nero, he was condemned to death, and, like his celebrated uncle, preferred to die by having his veins opened; he thus perished in his 27th year.

Columella, a learned writer on agriculture, whose chief work on that subject is still prized for its sagacity and practical character; he flourished 50 A.D.

Epictetus (a Greek) flourished in the first part of the 2d century B.C.; he wrote a compendium of the Stoic philosophy, and his sayings were collected by one of his pupils. He rose from the condition of a slave to places of honour, and was highly esteemed for the purity of his morals.

Pliny (Plinius); there were two distinguished Romans of this name, uncle and nephew, usually known as Pliny the Elder, and Pliny the Younger.

Pliny the Elder, a wealthy patrician, was born 23 A.D., and served for some time with distinction in the army. He was noted for his temperance, industry, and economic use of time, by which means he, in the course of a busy

professional career, digested and wrote a variety of works, of which only one has survived, the *Historia Naturalis* (Natural History)—a most comprehensive work, for it embraces the material world, man, animals, plants, medicines, and other subjects. Pliny was killed by the eruption of Vesuvius, 79 A.D.

Pliny the Younger, born 61 A.D., noted for his Epistles, of which there are ten books, in which he gives an account of the early Christians that is greatly to their credit.

Quintilian, author of a *Systematic Treatise on Rhetoric*, in 12 books, flourished about 90 A.D., and is reckoned as the greatest authority on style among the ancients.

Tacitus, the greatest of the Roman historians, was born probably about 60 A.D. He wrote a history of Rome during the earlier years of the empire, also a work on Germany, and a life of Agricola. The writings of Tacitus unite philosophical observation with a picturesque narration of facts.

Celsus, a celebrated Latin physician and writer on medical subjects, who flourished, it is supposed, in the reign of Augustus, and has been styled the 'Roman Hippocrates.' His great work is *De Medicinâ*, a Treatise on Medicine and Surgery.

Galen, a celebrated physician, born 130 A.D., practised medicine for some time at Rome, and served as a physician to the Roman army. Galen was an Asiatic Greek by birth. He died about 201 A.D., and left numerous treatises on medicine, pharmacy, and surgery, also on philosophical subjects.

Macrobius, a writer belonging to the 4th or 5th century, author, among other things, of a work entitled *Saturnalia*, which is valued for its illustrations of ancient manners and customs.

64. *Who were the Mimi of the Romans?*—The *mimi* were buffoons, who appeared at convivial meetings to entertain the guests by their farcical humour. The word *mimicry* is derived from them.

65. *Who were the Pantomimi of the Romans?*—They were tragic actors who represented characters and emotions by gestures and posturing alone. The modern term pantomime is derived from the Roman *Pantomimi*.

66. *What is the origin of Harlequin?*—The character of Harlequin, with his parti-coloured dress, is derived from that of a Roman *mime*. Some think that the character is a kind of burlesque of Mercury with his caduceus or short sword, to render himself invisible. The modern clown in a harlequinade represents Momus, the buffoon of the Greek mythology.

67. *What did the Greeks consider the Seven Wonders of the*

World?—1. The Pyramids of Egypt; 2. The Walls and Hanging-gardens of Babylon; 3. The Pharos at Alexandria; 4. The Temple of Diana at Ephesus; 5. The Statue of the Olympian Jupiter sculptured by Phidias, and composed of ivory and gold; 6. The splendid sepulchre erected by Queen Artemisia to her husband Mausolus, 353 B.C.—hence the English term mausoleum; and, 7. The Colossus of Rhodes.

Medieval Learning and Arts.

1. *How long did Latin continue to be the language of literature after the dissolution of the Roman empire?*—It continued to be employed by the fathers of the church, scholastics, and others, until about the middle of the 14th century, when it began to be superseded by modern languages.

2. *What is Patristic Latin?*—It is the Latin as written by fathers (*patres*) of the church, and is considered to be less pure and elegant than that of the classical Roman authors.

3. *Who were the Fathers of the Church?*—They were a long series of ecclesiastical teachers, who lived from the times of the apostles until about the 7th century, and generally left treatises defining the early views and doctrines of the church.

4. *Mention the names of some of the fathers?*—The list, including Greek and Latin fathers, is very numerous; a few of their names, indiscriminately, are as follows—Clement of Alexandria, Lactantius, Origen, Eusebius, Athanasius, Chrysostom, Tertullian, Augustine, Ambrose, and Jerome.

5. *Who was Arius?*—He was a religious teacher in the early part of the 4th century, who, while professing Christianity, maintained certain doctrines which were declared heretical by the famous Council of Nice, held 325 A.D. Arianism, as it is called from him, is opposed to the common doctrine of the Trinity, and holds that the Son is inferior to the Father.

6. *Who were the Scholastics?*—The name scholastics, or schoolmen, is ordinarily applied to certain famed teachers of philosophy and theology from the 9th to the 14th century—in short, to the men who taught the higher branches of education to the clergy and others, either in the monastic schools or in the later universities.

7. *Where did the scholastics ply their vocation?*—Generally in schools attached to monasteries, out of which there was little security for students in the middle ages. Most of the scholastics were monks.

8. *Mention the names of some eminent scholastics?*—Albertus Magnus (died 1280), Alexander of Hales, Thomas Aquinas, and Duns Scotus; this last flourished in the 14th century, and was particularly famous.

9. *Who was Bede?*—The 'Venerable Bede,' as he is usually called from his learning and piety, was born about 673, and became a monk at Jarrow, Northumberland; here he composed several learned works, particularly an ecclesiastical history of England down to 731, which constitutes an invaluable body of facts concerning the early condition of the country; it was written in Latin, but has been translated into English.

10. *What were the Sagas?*—The sagas were heroic poems and histories of the northern or Scandinavian people, about the 12th century; there were several celebrated sagas.

11. *What were the Eddas?*—Edda is the name given to two collections of Scandinavian myths or fables, the older being in verse, and executed, probably in the 12th century, by Sæmund the Wise; the younger in prose, by Snorri Sturleson, in the 13th century.

12. *What is meant by Runes?*—Runes is the name given to a kind of letters or alphabet used in early times by the Scandinavian and German peoples. They were much employed as symbols in divination and other magical practices. Old monuments covered with Runic symbols still exist in many parts of the British Islands.

† P L H X B M *
 † H M T T F H
 P E T R M H J M
 X F R E F B F T H
 D E E T F R B F R T
 D M B X D T I B

RUNES.

13. *Who was Thomas à Kempis?*—He was a native of Kempen, in Germany, where he was born in 1379; he became a monk in an Augustinian convent near Zwoll, and wrote several works of a religious nature; one of these, styled the *Imitation of Christ*, justly admired for its piety and simplicity, has been translated into many languages, and perhaps been more frequently printed than any other book, except the Bible.

14. *What was the period in which Arabic learning and literature flourished?*—It extended from the 8th to the 14th century,

when the learning and arts of the Arabians were extinguished by the barbarous tribes who migrated from Central Asia.

15. *Who was Abulfeda?*—He was a Syrian ruler, distinguished as a writer of several works in Arabic, on geography, history, and other subjects; he died in 1331.

16. *Who was Hafiz?*—He was an eminent Persian poet, who died about 1388. His collection of works is entitled the *Divân*, and consists chiefly of odes, or, as they are called in Persian, *ghazels*.

17. *What was the origin of the Arabian Nights' Entertainments?*—The work under that title is a collection of stories abounding in wild oriental fictions, which originated partly in India, Persia, and Arabia, and were perfected in Persia shortly after the reign of the Caliph Haroun al Raschid.

18. *When did Haroun al Raschid live?*—He lived in the 8th century, and was a contemporary of Charlemagne.

19. *When did the Arabian Nights' Entertainments become known in Europe?*—They were first made known under a French translation by M. Galland, 1704; but the best translation is the English one executed by Dr Edward Lane and published in 1839.

20. *What are Improvisatori?*—Improvisatori is the Italian name applied to persons who make extempore verses sometimes in public places of resort for general amusement; the term signifies to invent without premeditation.

21. *Is the practice of improvising ancient?*—Yes; it greatly prevailed during the middle ages, and served the purposes of literature where books were little known. The practice is still pursued in several Eastern countries.

22. *What was Alchemy?*—A supposed hidden or secret art of transmuting the baser metals into gold, by means of an unknown substance called the *Philosopher's Stone*; also the art of making an elixir to prolong human life, called the *Elixir Vitæ*.

23. *Where did alchemy originate?*—It originated in ancient times in Egypt, and after being practised among the Romans, it formed a pursuit of various learned enthusiasts in the middle ages. The term alchemy is Arabic, and is supposed to be from *Cham*, the Scripture name of Egypt.

24. *How did the science of Chemistry originate?*—It originated in the vain pursuits of the alchemists, who, while engaged in their secret experiments with retorts and crucibles, made many real and valuable chemical discoveries, and founded the science of chemistry.

25. *Who was Gebir?*—He was an Arabian alchemist, who lived in the 8th century, and wrote the first book on chemistry.

26. *What were Occult Arts?*—They were hidden or secret arts; the term occult, from the Latin, signifies concealed. The ancients practised various arts of this kind, such as divination or fortune-telling, necromancy, alchemy, and astrology.

27. *Explain the nature of Astrology.*—It was the delusive art of divining the fortune of individuals from the position of the heavenly bodies at the time of their birth. The term astrology is from the Greek, and signifies a knowledge of the stars.

28. *What nations were believed to be proficient in astrology?*—The Egyptians, Chaldeans, Hindus, Chinese, and latterly the Arabians, who pursued it with great ardour from the 7th to the 13th century.

29. *What was the great discovery that shook confidence in astrology?*—The discovery by Copernicus of the true system of planetary motions (1540), after which astrology was pursued only by weak-minded persons and impostors. The latest astrologer of any note in England was William Lilly, in the reign of Charles I.

30. *Who was Nostradamus?*—He was a celebrated French astrologer of the 16th century; he received encouragement from the court of France, and died 1566. Nostradamus wrote an almanac, which served as a model for subsequent ones.

31. *Who was Paracelsus?*—He was a clever and audacious Swiss, born about 1493, who adopted this name, and became notorious for his real or pretended cures of diseases, in which he repudiated Galen and all the old medical authorities. Paracelsus partook of the nature and manner of a charlatan, but his novel views helped considerably to break up antiquated notions, and to improve the practice of medicine. He was killed, 1541.

32. *Who were the Rosicrucians?*—They were members of a secret society, alleged to have been founded by Christian Rosenkreutz, a German, in the 14th century, who was said to have lived in India and Egypt, and there learned ancient mystic arts. The Rosicrucians had various fraternities at the beginning of the 17th century, but they ultimately died out.

33. *What peculiar fancies regarding the unseen world prevailed in the middle ages?*—There was a belief in 'Spirits of the Elements'—the spirits of fire being called *Salamanders*; those

of the water, *Undines* ; of the air, *Sylphs* ; and of the earth, *Gnomes* ; all which ridiculous and superstitious fancies have been made available by poets.

34. *What is Superstition ?*—Absurd opinions concerning the order of Nature and attributes of God ; such as a belief in magic, witchcraft, fetishes, fairies, and ghosts.

35. *What is a fetish ?*—A fetish is a thing supposed to be invested with marvellous powers, such as a tree, carved piece of wood, or any bundle of trash.

36. *Where has a belief in fetishes prevailed ?*—Among heathen nations in ancient and modern times ; but it now more particularly prevails in certain negro nations of Africa.

37. *What are fairies or elves ?*—They were imagined to be diminutive, bright, lively, ærial beings, usually of a kindly disposition, though sometimes a little malignant. A belief in beings of this kind prevailed from the earliest times among the Teutonic and Celtic nations of Europe.

38. *What style of Architecture arose in the middle ages ?*—The pointed or Gothic style, as developed in the building of abbeys, churches, and other ecclesiastical structures.

39. *What were the Masonic Guilds of the middle ages ?*—They were fraternities of practical architects and masons, who were employed to rear those grand ecclesiastical structures which still survive to attest the piety of the founders, and the skill of the artisans who constructed them.

40. *Were the masonic fraternities stationary ?*—No ; they moved about from country to country, fostered by the church, and protected by the rulers who required their services. These medieval fraternities are typified in the lodges of ‘free-masons,’ in modern times.

41. *What was the state of the drama in the middle ages ?*—There was no drama, properly so called ; the ancient Greek and Roman drama had sunk and disappeared ; and the only theatrical performances consisted of ‘mysteries and miracle plays,’ and ‘mummers.’

42. *What were Mysteries and Miracle Plays ?*—They were a species of drama founded on the historical parts of the Old and New Testaments, and the lives of the saints, performed first in churches and afterwards on platforms in the streets. Their original design was to instruct the people, but they latterly degenerated into scenes of coarse and irreverent buffoonery.

43. *What were the Mummers of the middle ages ?*—Mummers were sports in masks ; a mummer is one whose face is masked or concealed—hence the familiar word *mum*, to

conceal or be secret. The term *mummery* is believed to be originally from *Momus*, the god of mockery of the Greek mythology.

44. *What were the Romances of the middle ages?*—They were stories concerning saints, knights, giants, sorcerers, beautiful but distressed damsels, &c.; they originated chiefly in the ages of chivalry—11th to the 13th century.

45. *Explain how these stories were called 'romances.'*—They were so called from being narrated in modern dialects of the Roman (Latin) language, particularly French and Spanish. The modern word 'romance' is derived from these old medieval romances.

46. *Mention some of the more noted medieval romances.*—The story of Amadis of Gaul, and the story of Arthur and his Knights of the Round Table, are two of the most famous. Certain stories concerning a set of legendary heroes, called the 'Seven Champions of Christendom,' also belonged to this class of old and popular romances.

47. *Who were the saints of the middle ages?*—They were persons distinguished for an ardent spirit of devotion, as well as for their labours as Christian missionaries; for example, St Augustine, St Basil, St Benedict, St Anthony the Great, St Martin of Tours, St Francis of Assisi, and St Anthony of Padua. Several were renowned as thaumaturgists, and others as martyrs.

48. *What is a thaumaturgist?*—A thaumaturgist is one who is alleged to work wonders or miracles; the term is from the Greek *thauma*, wonder, and *ergon*, a work. The lives of the thaumaturgical saints were favourite books in the middle ages.

49. *What were patron saints?*—In the middle ages, every country and city had its patron or tutelary saint, who was supposed to act as its protector. For example, England had St George; Scotland, St Andrew; Ireland, St Patrick; Wales, St David; France, St Denis; Paris, St Geneviève; Naples, St Januarius; Edinburgh, St Giles; and so on.

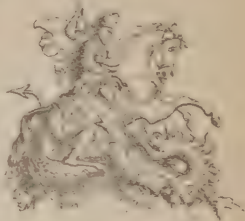
50. *What were Saints' Days?*—They were days on which each particular saint was specially honoured. Thus, St George's day was 23d April; St Andrew's day, 30th November; St Patrick's day, 17th March; and St David's day, 1st March.

51. *What were the fabulous animals of the middle ages?*—They were monstrous dragons, which devoured flocks and herds; unicorns, with a single pointed horn in the forehead;

and salamanders, which lived in the fire. Legendary stories and ballads about dragons are common in every European country.

52. *What is the story of St George and the Dragon?*—It is a mediæval romance, detailing the exploit of St George, a gallant Christian hero, who slew a monstrous dragon with his sword, after the animal had broken the lance with which he first attacked it.

53. *How has this legend been commemorated?*—By the figure of St George, as patron saint of England, being used in the insignia of the Order of the Garter, and being also placed on coins.



St. George and the Dragon

54. *What was the war-cry of the English in the middle ages?*—It was 'St George for Merry England'—a cry significant of the general character of the people, and their good-humoured sports and pastimes.

55. *What is the 'Order of the Garter?'*—It is an English order of knighthood, instituted by Edward III., on St George's Day, 1344, and is the highest honour of the kind.

56. *What is the story of its origin?*—It is related that the Countess of Salisbury, in dancing with Edward III., happened to lose her garter, whereupon the king picked it up, and tied it round his own leg; but that this act might not be misinterpreted, he restored the garter to the countess, exclaiming: '*Honi soit qui mal y pense*' (Shame to him who thinks evil), which exclamation remains the motto of the order, and is seen in the royal arms.

57. *What was the Renaissance?*—The term 'Renaissance' is applied to the revival of literature and arts in France in the early part of the 16th century—to which revival Francis I and his accomplished sister, Margaret of Valois, materially contributed.

Continental Literature.

Italy.

1. *When does Italian literature commence?*—It begins as early as the 13th century, or previous to the general revival of learning; the following is a summary of the principal Italian writers, and other learned men of note—

Dante, an eminent poet born at Florence, 1265; his great work is the *Divina Commedia*, an epic poem consisting of three parts, *L'Inferno*, *Il Purgatorio*, and *Il Paradiso*; the poem is of the highest order, and ranks Dante with Homer and Milton.—Died 1321.

Petrarch, an eminent lyrical poet; his best poems are sonnets to a lady, named Laura, for whom he nourished a sentimental affection. Petrarch lived for a time at Vacluse, near Avignon, whence his fame spread over Europe.—Died 1374.

Boccaccio, a celebrated novelist; he is best known for his *Decameron*, a series of little stories, from which later novelists and dramatists have largely borrowed.—Died 1375.

Louis Cornaro, a Venetian nobleman, renowned for his example of temperance, which he describes in his work, *Discorsi della Vita Sobria* (Essay on Temperate Living).—Died at nearly 100 years of age, 1566.

Macchiavelli, a famed statesman and writer on political subjects.¹ His most celebrated treatise is *Del Principe*, or how princes should govern their states. The principles inculcated by the author in this work are so bad, that it has been a question ever since, whether he wrote in earnest or in covert satire.—Died 1527.

Ariosto, celebrated for his poem, *Orlando Furioso*, which he wrote as a continuation of a previous romantic epic, *Orlando Innamorato*, by Boiardo. Ariosto's poetry exhibits a great richness of invention, with a highly-finished style.—Died 1533.

Guicciardini, famed as a historian and statesman; his great work is his *History of Italy*; he has been styled the Italian Polybius.—Died 1540.

Torquato Tasso, celebrated for his epic poem, *Gerusalemme*

¹ See *Historical Questions*, p. 180.

Liberata (Jerusalem Delivered), and also for his lyrical pieces, which are remarkable for their pathos and musical sweetness of versification.—Died 1595.

Guarini, famed for his elegant pastoral drama, *Il Pastor Fido* (The Faithful Shepherd). Guarini was one of several Italian writers who revived the regular drama, after its long depression during the middle ages.—Died 1612.

Tassoni, celebrated as the writer of a comic epic, *La Secchia Rapita* (Rape of the Bucket), satirising the petty wars of the Italian cities; but he wrote a number of other works.—Died 1635.

Galileo—properly Galileo Galilei, celebrated for his discoveries in physical science, confirmatory of the Copernican system; his noted work on this subject, a Dialogue concerning the two Ruling Systems of the World, subjected him to imprisonment by the Inquisition, 1633. Galileo occupies a high position in the annals of science.—Died 1642.

Torricelli, a philosopher, and follower of Galileo, who first ascertained the pressure of the air, and invented the barometer.—Died 1647.

Metastasio, author of numerous dramas and musical cantatas; his original name was Trapassi, of which Metastasio is a Greek translation.—Died 1782.

Galvani, a celebrated physiologist, discoverer of that species of electrical action, named from him *Galvanism*.—Died 1798.

Alfieri, a poet and writer of tragedies, who acquired some notoriety by marrying the Countess of Albany, widow of Prince Charles Edward Stuart.—Died 1803.

Spain and Portugal.

2. *What is 'The Cid'?*—The *Cid* is the title of an extremely old Spanish poem or ballad, having for its illustrious hero Don Rodrigo Ruy Diaz, who by the Moors was called *Es-Sid* (lord or prince), which designation became corrupted into *Cid*. The ballad refers to the Cid's encounters with the Moors of Spain in the 8th century, and was written about 1150.

3. *Who was Cervantes?*—Miguel de Cervantes Saavedra was born about 1547, and died 1616. He suffered many misfortunes, and for the most part lived poor and friendless; yet he was the greatest writer that Spain ever produced. His principal work was *Don Quixote*, a satiric and amusing romance, the first part of which was published 1605.

4. *Who was Lope de Vega?*—He was an extraordinarily prolific Spanish dramatist, a contemporary of Cervantes and

of Shakspeare ; his dramas are heroic or historical comedies.—Died 1635. He was succeeded by Calderon, whose dramas possess a high polish, and are full of brilliant fancy.

5. *Who was Quevedo?*—Quevedo was a Spanish poet and novelist, noted for his humorous and satirical writings ; his most famed production was his *Visions*, which consist of revelations of the future world, depicting the end of vanity and punishment of crime.—Died 1645.

6. *Who was Camoens?*—Camoens was a Portuguese poet, and the only writer of his country who has obtained much celebrity abroad ; his fame rests on the epic poem, *Os Lusíadas*, or the Lusitanians—the ancient name of that part of the Peninsula now called Portugal having been Lusitania.—Died 1579.

France.

7. *When did French literature commence?*—It commenced with the songs of the troubadours, the romances of chivalry, and the fabliaux—all current in the 12th and 13th centuries.

8. *What were fabliaux?*—They were short metrical narratives on passing events or familiar subjects, generally satiric and humorous ; they were called *fabliaux*—that is, things told, stories, or narratives (from *fabulari*, to speak or tell), and their narrator was known as a *fableor*.

9. The following is a summary of noted French writers and men distinguished for learning previous to the reign of Louis XIV.—

Robert Sorbon, an eminent theologian in the reign of St Louis, who, about 1250, founded a college of education in Paris, which became celebrated under the name of the *Sorbonne*, and existed until overthrown by the Revolution. The buildings have been restored to the service of public instruction, and lectures in theology and some other branches are still given there in connection with the Academy of Paris.

Froissart, a lively and observant writer, who flourished in the 14th century, and was a favourite at various courts in Europe. His fame rests on his *Chronicles*, an amusing account of the events of his time, prized for its illustrations of courtly usages.—Died 1410.

Philippe de Comines, a statesman, first in the service of Charles the Bold of Burgundy, and afterwards a confidential minister of Louis XI. ; he wrote valuable and interesting *Memoirs*.—Died 1509.

Rabelais, a satirical and humorous writer, whose fame

rests on a romance, the heroes of which are *Gargantua* and *Pantagruel*; the work is full of exceedingly coarse satire and buffoonery.—Died 1533.

John Calvin (French, *Jeau Cauvin*), a theologian and reformer, who wrote in Latin and in French; his chief works are his *Institutes of the Christian Religion*, and his *Commentaries on the Scriptures*.¹—Died 1564.

Ronsard, an eminent lyrical poet, whose verses were favourites with Mary Queen of Scots.—Died 1585.

Brantome, a writer of memoirs descriptive of the manners of his time—Charles IX. to Louis XIII. He died 1614.

Montaigne, distinguished as a writer of philosophical and moral *Essays*, which have been translated into several languages, and are of a sceptical character.—Died 1592.

Francis de Sales was famed for his works of a devotional character, the principal of which is his *Introduction to a Religious Life*; and also for his services in recovering large numbers to the Church of Rome after they had become members of the Reformed communions.—Died 1622.

Sully, a statesman and writer of memoirs illustrative of the reign of Henry IV.²—Died 1641.

10. The following were the distinguished writers in the long reign of Louis XIV., 1643—1715, ordinarily called the Augustan age of French literature—

Descartes, an eminent philosophical thinker and writer, who opened the way for Locke, Newton, and Leibnitz. The leading peculiarity of his metaphysical system was the attempt to deduce all moral and religious truth from self-consciousness.—Died 1650.

Blaise Pascal, a writer of works of a pious and religious nature; the two best known are his *Pensées* (Thoughts), and *Lettres Provinciales* (Provincial Letters), which are considered among the finest specimens of French literature.³—Died 1662.

Mademoiselle de Scudery, a writer of romances, the principal of which are *Le Grand Cyrus*, and *Clelie*, each in 10 vols. They were once very popular, but are now almost forgotten. Died in 1701, aged 94.

Madame de Sévigné, celebrated for her epistolary talents; her letters, written mostly to her daughter, are esteemed models of simplicity, liveliness, and elegance of expression; they consist of several volumes. She held a high place in the literary circles of Paris.—Died 1696.

Pierre Corneille, the creator of French tragedy; his dramas

¹ See *Historical Questions*, page 145.

² *Ibid.* page 148.

³ *Ibid.* page 152.

are highly esteemed for their declamatory grandeur by his countrymen, by whom he is called 'Le grand Corneille.'—Died 1684.

Jean Baptiste Molière—the name Molière being assumed in place of Poquelin. Molière was the creator of French comedy, and takes the highest rank as a writer of humorous and satirical plays.—Died 1673.

Jean Racine, a dramatist, contemporary with Corneille and Molière; the subjects of his plays are chiefly taken from classical and scriptural sources.—Died 1697.

Brueys, a theological writer and comic dramatist, but remembered only as the writer of a modernised version of an old play, in which in a droll litigation about sheep, occurs the phrase, 'revenons à nos moutons' (let us return to our sheep, or proper subject in hand)—a phrase now often quoted in a jocular sense. The name of this play is *L'Avocat Patelin*.

Lafontaine, a poet and fabulist, whose fables in verse will ever occupy a prominent place in French literature.—Died 1695.

Boileau, the most famous of the French satirical poets; his principal works are his *Satires*, his *Épîtres*, and his *Art Poétique*, a performance of high finish.—Died 1711.

Bossuet, Bourdaloue, and Massillon, three pulpit orators, distinguished for their fervid and persuasive eloquence. Bossuet, who died 1704, and Massillon, who died 1742, have left sermons which are probably not surpassed in splendour and grace of rhetoric by any similar compositions.

Roche foucauld, a nobleman, author of *Maximes Morales*, noted for their searching and severe exposition of the motives of human conduct.—Died 1680.

Bruyere, or Labruyere, celebrated for works on character and manners.—Died 1696.

Bayle, a philosophical writer, who in his *Dictionnaire Historique et Critique*, has shewn all the qualities of his remarkable mind—wit, logic, learning, and scepticism.—Died 1706.

Vauban, a marshal of France in the reign of Louis XIV., and famous for his system of fortifying towns, on which subject he left several works at his death in 1707.

Malebranche, a writer on philosophical subjects; his most famous work is his *Recherche de la Vérité*.—Died 1715.

Fenelon, Archbishop of Cambray, an eminent writer of works of a philosophical and religious nature, but best known as the author of the classic romance *Telemaque*, prepared for the special use of his pupil, a grandson of Louis XIV., the young Duke of Burgundy, who died 1714. Fenelon died 1715.

Fontenelle, author of numerous poetical, oratorical, dramatic, philosophical, and scientific writings. He possessed a fine temper and gentle disposition, and died when he had nearly finished his 100th year, 1757.

11. The following were the distinguished writers of the 18th century—

Rollin, a historian, whose writings, though refined in style, are diffuse and uncritical.—Died 1741.

Lesage, poet, dramatist, and novelist, famed as the author of *Gil Blas*.—Died 1747.

Baron de Montesquieu, a celebrated author and political philosopher; his great work, which occupied him 20 years, was *L'Esprit des Lois* (The Spirit of Laws), often quoted on questions of civil liberty.—Died 1755.

Voltaire—properly, Francis Marie Arouet de Voltaire—the most voluminous and distinguished of all the French writers—poet, dramatist, historian, and philosopher. By his subtle and sarcastic genius Voltaire exercised a prodigious influence over his countrymen, and powerfully aided in bringing on the Revolution.—Died 1778.

Jean Jacques Rousseau, dramatist, novelist, and writer on speculative subjects, but extravagant in his theories, and intractable; though classed with French writers, he was a native of Geneva.—Died 1778.

The Count de Buffon, naturalist; Marimontel, novelist; La Harpe, literary biographer and critic; Raynal, historian; Helvetius, writer on philosophical subjects; D'Alembert and Condorcet, mathematicians; Lavoisier, chemist; Diderot, moralist and romance-writer; and St Pierre, author of *Paul et Virginie*; rank among the leading men of science and letters in France, in the latter part of the 18th century.

12. In the present century, France has had the following authors of note—

Baroness de Staël-Holstein, ordinarily called Madame de Staël, was daughter of Necker, the famous financier, and became celebrated for her novels and other productions; her best-known work is *Corinne, ou l'Italie* (Corinne, or Italy).—Died 1817.

Laplace, a celebrated astronomer, author of the *Mécanique*



Voltaire.

Céleste and *Système du Monde*, works of the highest value to science.—Died 1827.

Laurent de Jussieu, born at Lyon 1748, Professor of Botany in Paris, whose fame rests on his system of plants, known as the Jussieuian or Natural System, which is now generally adopted. The work in which his views are set forth is entitled *Genera Plantarum*.—Died 1836.

Decandolle, native of Geneva, follower of Jussieu, whose system of botany he improved, and author of several important works on the vegetable kingdom.—Died 1841.

Vicomte de Chateaubriand, a writer on political and speculative subjects; his works are of a pious and imaginative kind, but want solidity.—Died 1848.

Béranger, a poet, celebrated for his lyrical and patriotic songs.—Died 1857. Jasmin was a contemporary poet in humble life, who wrote in the patois of the south of France.

Michelet, born 1798, a brilliant historian, and author of several polemical novels.—Died 1874.

Lamennais, one of the most celebrated of the politico-religious writers in the present century.—Died 1854.

Sismondi, a native of Geneva, but of Italian descent, who finally resided in France; he wrote on political economy, in which he adopted the advanced views of Adam Smith; his greatest works, however, are the *Histories of Italy and France*, which are voluminous, and greatly appreciated.—Died 1842.

Victor Cousin, born 1792, an eminent writer on philosophical subjects and on education; his works are very numerous.—Died 1867.

Guizot, born 1787, a writer of historical and political treatises, and a statesman of note in the reign of Louis-Philippe.—Died 1874.

Thiers, born 1797, writer of the *History of the French Revolution*, and an eloquent speaker; who as a statesman rendered eminent service to France, after the war with Germany.—Died 1877.

De Tocqueville, an eminent writer on politics.—Died 1859.

Lamartine, poet, died 1869;

Victor Hugo, poet and novelist, born 1802; Balzac, novelist, died 1850; Paul de Kock, novelist, died 1871; Eugene Sue, novelist, died 1857; and Madame Dudevant, known as 'George Sand,' born 1804, died 1876, are the principal writers of fiction in recent times.



Lamartine.

Jean Henri Merle, who, for family reasons, assumed the name D'Aubigné, born at Geneva, 1794, but classed as a French writer; his well-known work is a *Histoire de la Réformation*, which has been translated into English.—Died 1872.

Auguste Comte, an ingenious writer on mental philosophy, and founder of the system of speculation known as 'Positivism.'—Died 1857.

13. *What is Positivism?*—It is a philosophical system which rejects theology and metaphysics as fruitless speculations on things beyond the range of the human faculties, and confines itself to deducing the laws of positively ascertained phenomena.

Germany, &c.

14. *Is German literature of ancient date?*—There were many popular poems and other inartistic productions of an early period, but the classical German literature begins as late as the 18th century, with the writings of Klopstock, Goethe, and Schiller.

15. *What was the Nibelungen-lied?*—It was a series of old ballads, united so as to make one plot, of a heroic kind. *Nibelungen* was the name of an ancient royal race, and *lied* signifies a song. The *Nibelungen-lied* was sung by the minnesingers - troubadours of Germany.

16. *Have there been many German writers?*—Yes; although the literature is of comparatively recent origin, there has been a great abundance of writers, the sale of whose works forms a staple trade at Leipsic.

17. The following are the most noted writers and philosophers of Germany.—

Nicolas Copernicus—originally Copernik—a native of Prussia, eminent for his mathematical and astronomical knowledge. The system of astronomy which goes by his name is, however, not exclusively his; it is more the work of Kepler, Galileo, and Newton; but in his *De Revolutionibus Orbium*, Copernicus argues for the sun being the centre of the planetary system: from which circumstance he is usually called the originator of the present system of astronomy.—Died 1543.

Tycho Brahé, a native of Denmark, much of whose life was spent in Germany; he succeeded Copernicus as an astronomical discoverer, and added greatly to the general knowledge of the planets and stars.—Died 1601.

Kepler, a native of Würtemberg, who for some time acted

as assistant to Tycho Brahé ; his fame rests on his discovery of certain laws of light and of planetary motion, known as 'Kepler's Laws.'—Died 1630.

Puffendorf, native of Saxony, a celebrated jurist or writer on legal institutes. He was successively a professor at Heidelberg in Germany, and Lunden in Sweden, at which latter place he wrote his famed work, *De Jure Naturæ et Gentium* (The Laws of Nature and of Nations), which remains an authority on the subject.—Died 1694.

Leibnitz, a native of Leipsic, celebrated for his erudition and philosophical researches ; he wrote numerous works on natural theology, the human mind, and the moral government of the world.—Died 1716.

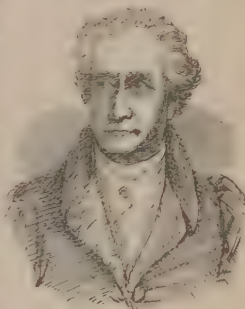
Karl Linné, best known by his Latinised name, Linnæus, a native of Sweden, who attained to great celebrity as a naturalist, especially for his discoveries in botany, and classification of plants known as the *Linnæan* or Artificial System.—Died 1778.

Mosheim, a native of Lübeck, author of an Ecclesiastical History in Latin ; also of works which contributed to the formation of a pure style of prose German composition.—Died 1755.

Lessing, a native of Saxony, dramatist and literary critic, who helped to emancipate German literature from corrupted French influences.—Died 1781.

Lavater, a native of Zürich, Switzerland, whose great work is a treatise on Physiognomy, or a method of determining character by the countenance. He was shot in the streets of Zürich when the French, under Massena, captured the city in 1799 ; but he lingered on till 1801.

Immanuel Kant, born at Königsberg, but of Scotch descent, became a professor in the university of his native city, and wrote various treatises on Reason and Ethics. The 'Kantian' or 'critical' philosophy has for its foundation an examination into the sources and elements of knowledge.—Died 1804.



Goethe.

Goethe, poet, dramatist, and novelist, the greatest of the German writers, born at Frankfort-on-the-Maine, 1749 ; his most famed production is *Faust*, a dramatic poem, of which there have been numerous translations.—Died 1832.

Klopstock, eminent as a German poet : his writings are chiefly lyrical and dramatic, but he is best known in England as author of the *Messiah*, a religious epic of a high order.—Died 1803.

Schiller, born in Wurtemberg, 1759, poet, dramatist, and historian ; his fame mainly rests on his tragedies of the *Robbers*, *Wallenstein*, *Tell*, and *Marie Stuart*, and on his splendid lyrics.—Died 1805.

Kotzebue, a prolific German dramatist, one of whose plays, under the name of *The Stranger*, is known in England. He was assassinated at Mannheim 1819, on account of his hostility to the liberal movement.

The two Humboldts, brothers, natives of Prussia—Karl Wilhelm, the elder, famed for his philological treatises ; died 1835. Alexander, one of the greatest of naturalists and geographers ; his latest and best-known work is *Cosmos*, a disquisition on the physical structure of the universe.—Died 1859.

August Wilhelm von Schlegel, native of Hanover, lyrical poet, and writer of various works connected with literary criticism. He had a good knowledge of English, and translated Shakspeare into German.—Died 1845.

Dr Franz Joseph Gall, a native of Suabia, who studied medicine at Vienna, and there became the founder of phrenology ; died 1828. Spurzheim, educated at Treves, associated himself with Gall, and became the popular expounder of the phrenological system, which he considerably extended.—Died 1832.

Niebuhr, born at Copenhagen 1776, mastered 20 languages before he was aged thirty. He wrote several historical and philological works ; his best-known production is *Römische Geschichte* (History of Rome).—Died 1831.

Neander—originally David Mendel—was born of Jewish parents at Göttingen, 1789, and adopted the name Neander on being baptised. He is allowed to be by far the greatest of ecclesiastical historians ; his best-known work is his *Kirchengeschichte* (Church History), which shews extraordinary erudition.—Died 1850.

Baron Liebig, born at Darmstadt, 1803, one of the greatest chemists of recent times, at one time Professor of Chemistry at the University of Giessen, in Hesse, and afterwards at Munich. He was the author of numerous and well-known works on chemical science, written chiefly to improve agriculture and sanitary knowledge.—Died 1873.

German literature has latterly been enriched by the writings of Fichte, Schelling, and Hegel—philosophy : Reinhard, Paulus,

Schleiermacher, and Strauss—biblical criticism : Wolf, Hermann, Müller, the two brothers Grimm, Bopp, Benecke, Adelung, Lassen, Rosen, Lepsius, Herder, and Bunsen—philology and critical research : Winckelman, Heeren, Ranke, Von Raumer, and Mommsen—archæology and history : and Körner, Uhland, Heine, Rückert, and Freiligrath—poetry.

In prose-fiction, Germany has the productions of Richter, Tieck, Hoffmann, Arnim, Zschokke, Therese Huber, Wagner, Möser, Stilling, Goethe, and Freytag ; few German novels, however, have been relished by English readers, to whom the general strain of German sentiment appears to be unintelligible.



Schiller.

18. *What is the general character of German literature in the present day?*—It is much less occupied with philosophical systems and metaphysical speculations than formerly. Numerous works are now produced on different branches of physical science, also on historical and antiquarian subjects.

The Netherlands, &c.

19. *What is the language of the Netherlands?*—It is the Dutch, a branch of the great Teutonic stock, to which belongs the modern German.

20. *Is Dutch literature of ancient date?*—No ; until comparatively late times, the learned men of the Netherlands wrote in Latin, and generally Latinised their names ; recently, there have been a number of writers in Dutch, but their works are little known beyond their own country.

21. The following are the more noted of the learned men of the Netherlands.—

Desiderius Erasmus—originally called Gheraerd—a native of Rotterdam, one of the most vigorous promoters of the Reformation, and writer of various philological and theological works.—Died 1536.

Arminius—originally James Hermann—born 1560, studied theology, and became the founder of the sect of Arminians, whose doctrines concerning the decrees of God and divine grace are opposed to those of Calvin, and have extensively prevailed in the Church of England.—Died 1609.

Hugo Grotius—originally De Groot—a native of Delit,

author of various political, theological, and historical treatises, likewise of poems in Latin verse ; his great work was *De Jure Belli et Pacis* (The Laws of War and Peace), which has been translated into various languages, and remains an authority on the subject.—Died 1645.

Spinoza, a native of Amsterdam, of Jewish descent, who spent much of his life as a meditative recluse at the Hague, where he wrote several works on ethics and philosophy. Spinoza's views are usually called atheistic ; strictly, they were pantheistic, and have never received any practical acceptance.—Died 1677.

Leuwenhoek, a native of Delft, where he spent his life in constructing microscopes, and in making discoveries in animal physiology by means of these instruments. When Peter the Great passed through the Netherlands, he visited Leuwenhoek, who, by a microscope, shewed him the circulation of the blood in the tail of an eel.—Died 1723.

Boerhaave, born near Leyden, 1668, became one of the most celebrated physicians and anatomists of the 18th century ; to his lectures at the University of Leyden pupils flocked from all parts of the civilised world.—Died 1738.

The list of modern Dutch writers in miscellaneous literature and poetry, includes Hooft, Vondel, Cats, Van der Palm, Van Lennep, Bilderdyk, and Da Costa.

22. *Who was Karamsin ?*—He was the most eminent prose writer that Russia has produced ; born 1766 ; his great work is a *History of the Russian Empire*, written in the Russian language, and highly esteemed.—Died 1826.

23. *Who was Pushkin ?*—He was the most distinguished poet of Russia, born 1796 ; he wrote several narrative poems and dramas in the Russian language, and has been sometimes called the Russian Byron.—Died 1837.

24. *What is the literature of the Magyars ?*—It is the literature of Hungary, composed in the Magyar language, which bears a resemblance to the Turkish. Specimens of Magyar poetry have been translated into English by Sir John Bowring.

25. *Who was Oehlenschläger ?*—He was a celebrated Scandinavian poet and dramatist, born near Copenhagen, 1779. His works, which are highly appreciated in Denmark and Germany, extend to 41 volumes.—Died 1850.

English Literature.

1. *What is the nature of the English language?*—It is a composition of Anglo-Saxon, French, and Latin, with words from various other languages.

2. *How many words are there in the English language?*—There are upwards of 42,000, of which 13,000 are Anglo-Saxon, and 29,000 French and Latin—the Latin being imported chiefly through the French.

3. *What words are employed in speaking?*—In ordinary conversation, Anglo-Saxon words are almost exclusively used; uneducated persons employ only a limited stock of words—seldom more than a few thousands.

4. *What words are employed in literature?*—Some writers employ more Anglo-Saxon words than others. Examples of simple and nervous Anglo-Saxon are found in the works of Bunyan, and in the authorised version of the Bible.

5. *What writers are noted for the profuse use of words from the Latin?*—Addison, Samuel Johnson, Gibbon, and some others in the 18th century.

6. *Give one or two examples of words from the Anglo-Saxon and Latin having the same meaning.*—‘Assemble’ is from the Latin; ‘meet together,’ from the Anglo-Saxon. ‘Exclaim’ is from the Latin; ‘cry out,’ from the Anglo-Saxon. ‘Ultimate’ is from the Latin; ‘the last,’ from the Anglo-Saxon. In each of these examples the meaning is the same.

7. *In what works is the derivation of words made the subject of study?*—In treatises on Philology and Etymology;¹ derivations are also found in etymological dictionaries.

8. *What is the effect of using words from the Latin?*—The effect is to give variety and a certain dignity to sentences; but when used profusely, the composition becomes pompous, and scarcely intelligible to ordinary readers.

9. *What is now the plan followed by good writers?*—It is to make no particular choice of words, but to use such, whatever be their origin, as are best suited to express their ideas.

10. *When does English literature commence?*—It properly

¹ See *Exercises on Etymology*, by W. Graham, LL.D.—*Chambers's Educational Course*.

begins with the works of Chaucer and Gower in the 14th century, when the language had settled into its present composite form, although still uncouth in its orthography, and in some of its expressions. Spenser says of Chaucer—

‘Dan Chaucer, well of English undefyled.’

Early English Writers.

11. *Who was Chaucer?*—Geoffrey Chaucer was the earliest English poet; he was born in London, 1328, and was employed at the court of Edward III.; as an ambassador to Genoa, he visited Petrarch, with whom he had congenial literary tastes; late in life he wrote his *Canterbury Tales*, which are an enduring monument of his genius.—Died 1400.



Chaucer.

12. *What is the nature of the Canterbury Tales?*—They are tales in verse, purporting to be related for mutual amusement by a party of equestrian pilgrims from the Tabard Inn, Southwark, to Canterbury. These tales are now little read on account of a number of the words being obsolete, or in an old orthography; but their merit places Chaucer in the first rank of English poets.

13. *Who was Gower?*—John Gower, a contemporary of Chaucer, was an English gentleman of property, who wrote several poems, some in Latin, and some in English; those in English are admired for their lively expression of natural feeling.—Died 1408.

14. *Who was Sir John Mandeville?*—He is usually reckoned the first English prose writer; about 1356 he wrote an account of his travels in foreign countries, a work consisting of a curious mixture of truth and fable, and valuable as a specimen of English prose composition in the 14th century.

15. *Who was John Wicliffe?*—He was a learned ecclesiastic (born 1324, died 1384), who executed a translation of the Scriptures from the Latin, which remains one of the valuable relics of the English language in the 14th century¹

¹ See *Historical Questions*, p. 94

16. *Who was Richard of Cirencester?*—He was a monkish chronicler of the 14th century, famed for his history of the Anglo-Saxons, and a description of Britain in Latin, entitled *De Situ Britannie*; a manuscript of this last work was discovered at Copenhagen in 1747, and has been translated and published in England. Richard died about 1401.

17. *What promoted literature in the 15th century?*—The discovery of the art of printing, which was introduced into England by William Caxton about 1471.

18. *What was the first book printed in Britain?*—It was *The Game of Chess*, printed by Caxton, 1474; Caxton translated or wrote about sixty different books, all of which went through his own press before his death in 1491.

19. *Mention other early writers of note*—

Henry Howard, eldest son of the Duke of Norfolk, and usually called Earl of Surrey, was the first of the distinguished poets in England after Chaucer and Gower; his poems are chiefly lyrical, and are refined in style. Surrey was a gallant soldier, and conducted an important expedition into Scotland, 1542. Falling under the displeasure of Henry VIII., he was beheaded, 1547.

Sir Thomas Wyatt, lyrical poet, a contemporary of Surrey at the court of Henry VIII., remarkable for the tenderness of his songs and sonnets.—Died 1541.

Sir Thomas More, the pious and learned chancellor of Henry VIII., by whom he was barbarously condemned and beheaded, 1535,¹ wrote several works in Latin and English; his best known production is a curious philosophical work in Latin, under the title of *Utopia*, descriptive of an imaginary country, where everything is perfect. From this work comes the term 'Utopian,' signifying that which is chimerical or impracticable.

John Leland, the first English antiquarian writer, died 1552; and Roger Ascham, a writer of educational and other treatises, who assisted Queen Elizabeth in her classical studies; died 1568. These were two learned men of note in England at the middle of the 16th century.

Early Scottish Writers.

20. *What language was employed by the early Scottish writers?*—Some wrote in Latin; others wrote in the Scottish vernacular of the period, which bore a resemblance to the

¹ See *Historical Questions*, p. 97.

English of Chaucer, and which, with some modifications, now constitutes what is called the Scottish dialect.

21. *Mention the more remarkable Scottish writers previous to the reign of James VI.—*

Sir Michael Scott of Balwearie, distinguished for his learning and knowledge of the occult sciences ; among the ignorant, he was reputed to be a magician, and there are numerous mythic legends concerning his marvellous performances. He wrote several scientific treatises in Latin.—Died 1291.

John of Fordoun wrote in Latin a work, styled the *Scotichronicon*, purporting to be a history of Scotland from the beginning of the world ; it brought the history down to the death of David I. in 1153. Fordoun died about 1385. His work was afterwards extended to 1437, by Walter Bower, abbot of Inchcolm.

John Barbour, archdeacon of Aberdeen in 1357, is reckoned the earliest Scottish poet. Some of his poems are lost ; that which remains is *The Bruce*, a versified history of the transactions by which the family of Robert Bruce obtained the Scottish crown.—Died 1395.

Andrew Wyntoun, prior of the monastery of St Serf, Lochleven, about 1420, completed his *Orygynale Cronykil of Scotland*, a historical narrative in verse.

James I. of Scotland, an accomplished prince, educated in England, wrote some elegant poetry ; his best known work is *The King's Quhair* (Quire or Book), which contains poetry equal to that of any of his English contemporaries. This royal poet was barbarously assassinated, 1437.

Blind Harry is the name given to a wandering poet, blind from his infancy, who recited *The Adventures of Sir William Wallace* in verse, which, in a modernised form, remains a popular favourite. Blind Harry flourished about 1460.

William Dunbar occupies a high rank among Scottish poets ; his poems, allegorical, moral, and comic, were composed about 1491 ; they are still highly relished, and would be more so but for their antiquated orthography.—Died about 1520.

Gavin Douglas was a younger son of Archibald, fifth Earl of Angus, and became bishop of Dunkeld ; about 1500 he wrote several poems, the longest of which is *The Palace of Honour* ; he also produced a Scottish metrical version of Virgil's *Æneid*.—Died 1521. Scott says of him in *Marmion*—

‘ He gave rude Scotland Virgil’s page.’

Sir David Lyndsay, born about 1490, was at first a

companion of James V. when a boy, and afterwards filled the office of Lord Lyon King-at-arms; Lyndsay wrote some remarkable poems, chiefly satiric and humorous, which contributed to bring about the Reformation in Scotland.—Died about 1555.

James V. of Scotland is reputed to have written some humorous but somewhat coarse songs and ballads.—Died 1542.

George Buchanan, born 1506, was eminent for his scholarship, and his exertions in favour of the Reformation; excepting two pieces, he wrote in Latin, into which language he translated the Psalms of David. Buchanan became principal of St Leonard's College, St Andrews, 1566, and afterwards acted as tutor to James VI.; his greatest work is a *History of Scotland*, in Latin, which has been translated into English.—Died 1582.

John Knox, the Scottish Reformer, who died in 1572, and was characterised by the Earl of Morton as 'one who never feared the face of man,' wrote several theological works; but his chief production was a *History of the Reformation of Religion within the Realm of Scotland*.

Alexander Montgomery, a poet who wrote about 1568; his principal work is *The Cherry and the Slue* (sloe), a rural allegory abounding in beautiful imagery.

James VI. of Scotland, who became James I. of England, was a voluminous author; his works most frequently referred to are *Basilicon Doron* (Royal Gift), or Instructions concerning Government to his son Henry; *Dæmonologie*, a dialogue on witchcraft; and *A Counterblast to Tobacco*, written for the purpose of bringing tobacco-smoking into disrepute.—Died 1625.



John Knox.

John Napier of Merchiston, born 1550, attained to lasting fame by his discovery of Logarithms—a short method of calculation, valuable in many mathematical operations, described by him in a treatise on the subject.—Died 1617.

John Spottiswood (1565—1639), successively Archbishop of Glasgow and St Andrews in the reign of James VI., was author of a *History of the Church of Scotland*, which is considered to be, on the whole, a faithful and impartial narrative.

William Drummond (1585—1649) was a poet in Scotland, contemporary with Ben Jonson, who visited him at his seat of

Hawthornden, in the vicinity of Roslin. Drummond's poems consist of madrigals, epigrams, sonnets, and other pieces, distinguished by a play of fancy and harmony of versification.

The Era of Elizabeth, James I., and Charles I.—
1553 to 1649.

22. *What change took place in English Literature in the reign of Elizabeth?*—It became more truly national, and acquired a vigour and elegance far beyond what it had hitherto possessed; poetry and the drama, in particular, rose to a high degree of excellence.

23. *To what was the change imputed?*—To the outburst of free opinion consequent on the Reformation, also to the favour shewn to literature and men of genius by Queen Elizabeth, which favour was continued by James I. and Charles I. with the view of counteracting Puritanism.

24. *Mention the principal poets and dramatists in this era—*

Thomas Sackville, Earl of Dorset (1536--1608), writer of a poem entitled *The Mirrour for Magistrates*, remarkable for its vigour of allegorical description.

John Lyly, born about 1554, flourished as a dramatist in the reign of Elizabeth, but is only remembered as the writer of two works, entitled *Euphues, or the Anatomy of Wit*, and *Euphues and his England*. They are written in an affected, bombastic style, and gave rise to the term *Euphuism*, a method of speaking in bombastic and allegorical language, which was in vogue at the court of Elizabeth.

Sir Philip Sidney (1554—1586), a most accomplished writer of sonnets, and called the English Petrarch. He was mortally wounded in a battle in the Netherlands, 1586, and among numerous elegies on his death was a famed one by Spenser, under the title of *Astrophel*.

Christopher Marlowe (1565—1593), author of a poem, *The Passionate Shepherd to his Love*, beginning—

‘Come, live with me and be my love,’

by which he is best remembered; but he was also the author of a number of dramas of merit.

Edmund Spenser (1553—1599), the most luxuriant and melodious of all our descriptive poets; his great work is *The Faery Queen*, which presents a wondrous scene of enchantment and beauty. Spenser had a large grant of lands in Ireland from Queen Elizabeth, but, driven from that country, he died

in poverty at Westminster. From him comes the term 'Spenserian stanza'—a verse of eight lines, each of ten syllables, with a concluding line in twelve syllables, called an Alexandrine.

Southwell, Daniel, Drayton, Fairfax, Sir Henry Wotton, Donne, and Joseph Hall, are all celebrated for their poetry in different departments, in the reign of Elizabeth.

Ben Jonson (1574—1637), great as a poet and dramatist. Some of his lyrics—for example, that beginning—

'Drink to me only with thine eyes,'

are exquisitely beautiful. Among his dramas are, *Every Man in his Humour*, *The Silent Woman*, *The Fox*, *The Alchemist*, and *Cynthia's Revels*. On his tomb in Westminster Abbey is inscribed, 'O Rare Ben Jonson.'

Francis Beaumont (1585—1616) and John Fletcher (1576—1625), were two young men of genius who united their powers in a remarkable manner to compose plays, of which they wrote fifty-two; these dramas, tragical and comic, still keep their place in English literature.

WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE, born at Stratford-on-Avon, 1564, is the greatest of English poets and dramatists—his works shewing the most extraordinary versatility of fancy, felicity of expression, and knowledge of human character. He died 1616, and it was only after his decease that the grandeur of his genius was appreciated. The first edition of his works was published in 1623.

Philip Massinger (1584—1640), a distinguished tragic poet and dramatist in the reign of James I.; his play, entitled *A New Way to Pay Old Debts*, still keeps its place in the acted drama.

Sir John Suckling, author of several beautiful small poems; Robert Herrick, a writer of exquisite lyrics; and Richard Lovelace, a writer of odes and sonnets—rank among the high-class poets at the early part of the 17th century.



Shakespeare.

25. Mention the more distinguished prose writers of this era—

Sir Philip Sidney, already noted as a poet, was an accomplished prose writer: his best known work in this

department was *Arcadia*, a heroic romance, which was read and admired at the court of Elizabeth and her successor.

Richard Hooker (1553—1600), a learned theologian, author of the *Laws of Ecclesiastical Polity*, a work which is considered to be a powerful vindication of the Church of England and of ecclesiastical establishments generally.

Francis Lord Bacon (1561—1626), chancellor of England in the reign of James I., a luminary of learning, and author of several philosophical works ; his great work is the *Instauration of the Sciences*, in which is comprehended the *Novum Organum*, defining the proper method of prosecuting philosophical researches. This great statesman was convicted of corrupt practices, and besides being fined £40,000, was for a time confined in the Tower—an often-quoted instance of high intellect associated with imperfect moral principle. Bacon's *Essays* are well known.

William Camden (1551—1623), author of *Britannia*, a celebrated work in Latin, giving an account of Britain from remote antiquity, and of which a translation appeared in 1610 ; it is a valuable repository of antiquarian and topographical knowledge.

Robert Burton (1576—1640), a country clergyman, author of a learned and curious work, *The Anatomy of Melancholy*, which has been frequently reprinted.

Thomas Hobbes (1588—1679), ordinarily called Hobbes of Malmesbury, a learned philosophical writer ; his chief works are the *Leviathan*, and a *Treatise on Human Nature*, both containing profound views, but abounding in doctrines which have led to much controversy.

John Selden (1584—1654), a learned writer and distinguished political character ; his largest work is a *Treatise on Titles of Honour*, but it is less known than *Table-Talk*, a collection of his best sayings published after his death.

Jeremy Taylor (1613—1667), an eminent divine, and author of *The Liberty of Prophesying*, *Holy Living* and *Holy Dying*, and other theological and devotional works, which are highly prized for their learning, piety, and beauty of style.

Sir Thomas Browne (1605—1682), an able antiquary and physician, author of *Religio Medici* (The Religion of a Physician) and an *Inquiry into Vulgar Errors*, a work which displays great eloquence, learning, and shrewdness.

Thomas Dekker, a writer of plays, and author of *The Gull's Horn Book*, a satirical work on the fashionable follies of the day ; Sir Thomas Overbury, a witty and ingenious describer of character ; Owen Feltham, author of *Resolves—Divine*,

Moral, and Critical; and Peter Heylin, a writer on geography—all flourished in the reign of James I.

Charles I. was an accomplished writer, besides being a patron of art. A work has been usually ascribed to him, entitled the *Eikon Basilike* (Royal Image or Picture), which contains an affecting description of his position, character, and mind, during his confinement in the Isle of Wight. The work, which did not appear till after his decease, is now believed not to be Charles's composition, but it probably was revised and added to by him.

John Taylor, an enthusiastic royalist in the reign of Charles I., who had originally been a waterman on the Thames, kept a public-house in London, and wrote doggerel verses, which are now considered curious, as descriptive of events of his time. Taylor described himself 'His Majesty's *Water Poet*,' by which designation he is still spoken of. He made an adventurous journey to the Highlands of Scotland, regarding which he narrates some surprising incidents.—Died 1654.

26. *When did English newspapers begin?*—The earliest English newspapers or news-letters belong to the reign of James I., and were in the form of small quarto pamphlets. The first appeared in 1619; but newspapers embracing general intelligence did not appear until the reign of Charles I.

The Era of the Commonwealth to the Revolution— 1649 to 1689.

27. *What was the condition of literature during this era?*—In England, there was a series of distinguished writers in poetry and prose; but in Scotland literature suffered a remarkable eclipse, and did not prosper till long afterwards.

28. *Mention the names of some of the English poets in this era.*—Abraham Cowley, Edmund Waller, Sir John Denham, Charles Cotton, the Earl of Roscommon, John Philips, and Sir Charles Sedley. But the works of these and some others are now little read, and the really great poets of the period possessing a lasting fame are as follows—



John Milton.

John Milton (1608—1674), author of *Paradise Lost*, a poem in blank verse—the greatest epic in

the English language; he also wrote a number of minor poems of great beauty, including *L'Allegro*, *Il Penseroso*, and *Comus*. Milton also distinguished himself as a writer of treatises in favour of the Commonwealth and the principles of civil liberty.

Samuel Butler (1612—1680), author of *Hudibras*, a satirical poem, written after the Restoration, and designed to burlesque the republican and over-zealously religious party which had recently held sway.

John Dryden (1631—1700), a poet and dramatist by profession, who flourished in London for many years after 1660. Dryden (called by his admirers 'Glorious John') is chiefly renowned for his poems, among which are included, *Absalom and Achitophel*, a satire, the *Year of Wonders*, *Mac Flecnoe*, and *Fables*; also, *Alexander's Feast, or the Power of Music*, an *Ode for St Cecilia's Day*, which is now better known than all his other poems. He also translated Virgil's *Aeneid* into English verse.

Thomas Otway (1651—1685), a young contemporary of Dryden, noted for his tragedy of *Venice Preserved*.

29. Mention the most noted prose writers of this era—

Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon (1608—1674), who was Lord Chancellor for several years after the Restoration, wrote a *History of the Rebellion*, or great civil war in England, a voluminous work, which is prized for its liveliness of style and accuracy of facts.

Izaak Walton (1593—1683), ordinarily styled 'Old Izak Walton,' is renowned as the author of the *Complete Angler*, a work full of pleasing observations on rural subjects, which appeared in 1653; it has been often reprinted.

John Evelyn (1620—1706), a gentleman of easy fortune, who distinguished himself by writing several scientific works in a popular style; he is best remembered as the author of *Sylva, or a Discourse on Forest Trees*, and of a *Diary*, which has proved a most valuable addition to our store of historical materials.

John Locke (1632—1704) the greatest philosophical writer of the period; his principal production is the *Essay on the Human Understanding*, still a standard work.

Samuel Pepys (1632—1703), a contemporary of Evelyn; like him, he wrote a diary, styled his *Memoirs*, which abounds in amusing particulars concerning the court of Charles II. and the manners of his day.

Dr Ralph Cudworth (1617—1688), an eminent divine and philosophical writer: his principal production is the *True*

Intellectual System of the Universe, a work of great learning, acuteness, and loftiness of thought, the object of which was to overthrow certain atheistical theories.

Barrow, Tillotson, Sherlock, Stillingfleet, South, Wilkins, Pearson, and Sprat, were all divines in the Church of England after the middle of the 17th century, celebrated for their theological writings—sermons in particular—which are still highly esteemed.

Richard Baxter, John Owen, John Flavel, and Matthew Henry were all celebrated Nonconformist preachers after the middle of the 17th century, and their works still hold a high place in theological literature.

John Bunyan (1628—1688), the son of a tinker, was persecuted after the Restoration for holding unlawful Nonconformist assemblies; while in prison on a charge of this kind, he wrote the *Pilgrim's Progress from this World to that which is to come*—an allegory composed in simple but singularly effective English, which remains, perhaps, the most popular work in the language.

Sir William Temple (1628—1699) was a noted diplomatist, statesman, and miscellaneous writer, who possesses a high reputation as a polisher of the English language. From his younger brother, Sir John Temple, the late Lord Palmerston (Henry-John Temple) was descended.

Sir Matthew Hale (1609—1676), celebrated as a learned and upright judge in the time of the Commonwealth and Charles II., was the author of various works chiefly on natural philosophy. His principal theological work, partaking of Calvinistic views, is entitled *Contemplations, Moral and Divine*.

The Honourable Robert Boyle (1626—1692), son of the Earl of Cork, was eminent as a writer on natural philosophy and theological subjects. He instituted and endowed the 'Boyle Lectures,' to combat atheistical doctrines, and these are still delivered annually.

Sir Isaac Newton (1642—1727) holds by universal consent the highest rank among the natural philosophers of ancient and modern times. His great work is in Latin, and ordinarily known as the *Principia* (Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy). Newton, who was noted for his piety



Newton.

and amiability of character, wrote also some treatises on theological subjects.

John Ray (1628—1705), an eminent naturalist at the middle of the 17th century; he was the author of some treatises on plants and geography, but is best remembered as the writer of a work first published in 1691, entitled *The Wisdom of God in the Works of Creation*.

Gilbert Burnet (1643—1715), a native of Edinburgh, at first a Presbyterian minister in Scotland, and at last, by favour of William III., Bishop of Salisbury; his great work is his *History of My Own Times*, giving an outline of the events of the civil war, and a full narrative of what took place from the Restoration till 1713. Burnet's work remains a standard book in English literature.

The Era of the Reigns of William III., Anne, and George I.—1689 to 1727.

30. *Was literature in this era independent of support from private patrons?*—No; following an ancient practice, it was still customary for writers to secure some kind of encouragement from wealthy and titled persons before adventuring on publication; in return for which they generally appended a dedication to their patron.

31. *What were Grub-street writers?*—They were an abject class of authors who lived in and about Grub Street, a low street in London, and were notorious for their slanderous inventions and mercenary dedications.

32. *Why did not writers generally depend exclusively on public support?*—Because, as yet, the number of readers and purchasers of books was limited; it is only in recent times that authors have been able to depend exclusively on public patronage, and to care little for any special private favour.

33. *Who were the British Essayists?*—They were a series of writers of essays on men and manners, who commenced this entertaining species of literature in the reign of Queen Anne. The essays appeared in certain small periodicals, the earlier of which were the *Review*, *Tatler*, and *Spectator*.

34. *Mention the principal writers in the era from 1689 to 1727—*

Daniel Defoe (1661—1731), miscellaneous writer and novelist; best known as the author of *Robinson Crusoe*, a fiction universally appreciated; he also wrote a satirical poem.

styled the *True-born Englishman*, and a *History of the Union of England and Scotland*. Defoe is likewise celebrated as the earliest of the essay writers; his productions in this department appeared in a periodical called the *Review*, 1704.

Sir Richard Steele (1675—1729) was an Irishman by birth, who became popularly known in London as 'Jovial Dick Steele'; he organised the *Tatler*, 1709, and afterwards the *Spectator*, 1711, in both of which works he was ably assisted by Addison. Steele possessed great fertility of invention, as respects incident and character, and his papers abound in inimitable touches.

Joseph Addison (1672—1719), poet, dramatist, and miscellaneous prose writer, assisted Steele in the *Tatler*, also in the *Spectator*, to which he contributed many papers of great literary finish, including those on Sir Roger de Coverley. Johnson says of him, 'whoever wishes to attain an English style, familiar but not coarse, and elegant but not ostentatious, must give his days and nights to the volumes of Addison.'

Matthew Prior (1664—1721), a poet whose works include odes, songs, epistles, epigrams, and tales—all beautiful in versification, and full of humour and fine feeling.

Jonathan Swift (1667—1745), a poet and miscellaneous and political writer, whose works abound in satire and invective: his best known productions are the *Tale of a Tub* and *Gulliver's Travels*; the purity of his prose style renders it a model of English composition. Swift occupied the position of dean of St Patrick's Cathedral, Dublin, and is ordinarily spoken of as 'Dean Swift.'

Alexander Pope (1688—1744), an eminent poet, celebrated for his *Essay on Man*, which abounds in splendid passages which are constantly quoted, also the *Rape of the Lock*, and the *Dunciad*; this last was a severe satire on inferior Grub-street poets and pretenders.



Pope.

Pope's verse is exceedingly fluent, and he shews an acute knowledge of human character.

Henry St John, Viscount Bolingbroke (1678—1751), wrote a number of historical and speculative treatises, which are eloquent and imaginative, but generally unsound in principle;

his works extend to several volumes.¹ Pope opens his *Essay on Man* with an address to Bolingbroke—

‘Awake, my Saint John! leave all meaner things
To low ambition and the pride of kings.’

Thomas Parnell (1679—1718), a poet, contemporary with Swift and Pope, best remembered for his poem, *The Hermit*.

John Gay (1688—1732), poet and dramatist, author of *Trivia, or the Art of Walking the Streets of London*; *Fables*, and the play of the *Beggar's Opera*; he also wrote various songs and ballads, of which *Black-eyed Susan* remains one of the most popular.

Tickell, and Ambrose Philips, as poets; and Rowe, Lillo, Congreve, Vanbrugh, Farquhar, and Cibber, as dramatists, considerably enriched the literature of the first half of the 18th century.

Lady Mary Wortley Montagu (1690—1762), eldest daughter of the Duke of Kingston, who had lived with her husband at Constantinople, became celebrated for her *Letters*, which are models of the epistolary style—easy, familiar, and elegant, and interesting from their pictures of eastern manners and their fashionable gossip.

Anthony Ashley Cooper, third Earl of Shaftesbury (1671—1713), famed as a metaphysician; his great work is entitled *Characteristics of Men, Manners, Opinions, and Times*; as a moralist he maintains doctrines in opposition to Hobbes.

Dr George Berkeley (1684—1753), who became Bishop of Cloyne, in Ireland, was, like Shaftesbury, eminent as a writer on metaphysical subjects; his works, of which his *Theory of Vision* is the most remarkable, form an important landmark in philosophical science. His system is generally spoken of as *idealistic*—that is, a system which makes the reality of the world depend on the human consciousness of it.

Dr Francis Atterbury, Dr Samuel Clarke, Dr William Lowth, and Dr Benjamin Hoadly, were all celebrated English divines in this era, and have left theological works of great note. With these writers may be associated Charles Leslie, author of a work, still popular, *A Short and Easy Method with the Deists*.

Dr Humphrey Prideaux (1648—1724), was author of *The Connection of the History of the Old and New Testaments*, a work highly esteemed, and invaluable to all students of divinity.

¹ See *Historical Questions*, p. 121.

35. *Who was Joe Miller?*—He was a facetious and popular comedian, who acted at Drury Lane Theatre in the early part of the 18th century, and died 1738. After his death, a volume of jests, collected by a literary man named Mottley, was issued as *Joe Miller's Jest*s; and the name 'Joe Miller' has ever since been associated with books of this kind.

The Era of the Reign of George II.—1727 to 1760.

36. *What was remarkable in this era?*—The revival of literature in Scotland after a long depression. The revival was of two kinds—the rise of poets who wrote in the Scottish dialect, and were therefore distinctly national, and the rise of writers, Scotsmen by birth, whose works were a contribution to English literature.

37. *Mention some of the national poets of Scotland at this period*—

The first place is due to Allan Ramsay (1686—1758), who wrote many popular ballads and songs; but the work from which he derives lasting fame is the *Gentle Shepherd*, a pastoral in the Scottish dialect of singular beauty—perhaps the finest pastoral ever written—which appeared in 1725. Ramsay lived and died in Edinburgh, where a monument has lately been erected to his memory.

The poets of Scotland of lesser note in this era were Sempill of Beltrees, William Hamilton of Bangour, Robert Crawford, Sir Gilbert Elliot, and Rev. John Skinner.

38. *Who were the writers, Scotsmen by birth, who at this time enriched*

English literature?—Thomson, Mallet, Hume, Smollett, and some others. The more noted of this class take their place among English writers in the following list—

James Thomson, born at Ednam, near Kelso, 1700, author of *The Seasons*, a poem in blank verse, abounding in beautiful rural imagery and fine feeling; he also wrote *The Castle of Indolence* and some other poems. Thomson died in 1748, and was buried at Richmond. His tomb is referred to in a mellifluous and tender Ode on his death by Collins—



Allan Ramsay.

'In yonder grave a Druid lies,
Where slowly winds the stealing wave.
The year's best sweets shall duteous rise,
To deck its Poet's sylvan grave !

Remembrance oft shall haunt the shore,
When Thames in summer wreaths is drest,
And oft suspend the dashing oar,
To bid his gentle spirit rest !'

William Collins (1720—1756), famed for his odes, particularly his *Ode to the Passions*, his *Dirge in Cymbeline*, and other poems characterised by great imagination and sweetness.

Dr Isaac Watts (1674—1748), a name ever to be pronounced with reverence ; he was the author of numerous small poems and hymns of great beauty and simplicity ; he likewise wrote treatises on *Logic* and on the *Improvement of the Mind*.

Michael Bruce, a youthful poet in Scotland, who died 1767, composed a number of beautiful Scripture paraphrases and other pieces, which have been much admired.

Dr Samuel Johnson (1709—1784), 'the Leviathan of English literature,' scholar, poet, essayist, lexicographer, and miscellaneous writer. Beginning the profession of an author about 1731, he wrote *London*, a satire in verse ; *The Rambler* and *Idler*, two series of essays ; *Rasselas* ; *Lives of the Poets*, and various other works ; but his great production was his *Dictionary of the English Language*, which occupied him seven years, and appeared in 1755. Johnson visited the Hebrides in 1773, and wrote an account of his journey.



Samuel Johnson.

William Somerville (1692—1742), author of *The Chase*, a poem on field-sports ; William Shenstone (1714—1763), pastoral and elegiac poet ; David Mallet (1700—1765), writer of ballads, one of which, *William and Margaret*, is of particular excellence ; Mark Akenside (1721—1770), author of *Pleasures of the Imagination*, a poem more classical than popular ; and George Lord Lyttleton (1709—1773), writer of various poems of merit—were among the distinguished literary men in this era.

Thomas Gray (1716—1771), a poet who, though writing little, greatly excelled most of his contemporaries : his poem,

Elegy written in a Country Churchyard, is deservedly among the most popular in the language.

David Hume (1711—1776), eminent as a metaphysician and historian; his first production was his *Treatise on Human Nature*, published in 1738, and the views in which were of a sceptical tendency. Hume, however, is best known by his *History of England*, which was not completely issued until 1762; this history, though popular from the ease and elegance of the narrative, is now considered to be not a good authority.

Henry Fielding (1707—1754), the greatest of the 18th-century novelists, but so coarse in some of his pictures of character, that he is now less popular than formerly; his principal works are *Joseph Andrews*, *Tom Jones*, and *Amelia*, which have been often reprinted.

Tobias George Smollett (1721—1771), distinguished as a historian, novelist, and poet, made literature a profession. He wrote a continuation of Hume's history, but his chief popularity is derived from his *Roderick Random*, *Peregrine Pickle*, and *Humphrey Clinker*, novels which abound in characteristic humour; he also wrote some poems, the most admired being his *Ode to Independence*. Smollett stands prominently out as an author at the close of the reign of George II., and commencement of the reign of George III.

Samuel Foote (1721—1777), an actor, author of humorous plays and farces at one time very popular, and whose witticisms are scattered through the old jest-books.

Samuel Richardson (1689—1761) was a printer in London, who acquired celebrity as a novelist; his works are *Pamela*, *Clarissa Harlowe*, and *Sir Charles Grandison*, all very voluminous and tedious, but acknowledged to be true pictures of the human character.

39. *When did Magazines begin?*—The *Gentleman's Magazine*, the first of this class of monthly periodicals, was commenced in 1731, by Edward Cave, who employed Samuel Johnson as one of its contributors.

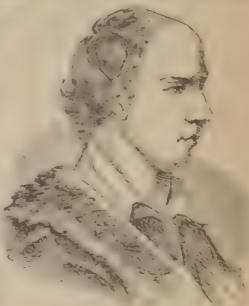
40. *When did Encyclopædias begin?*—The first English Encyclopædia, or Dictionary of Universal Knowledge, was that of Ephraim Chambers, published in 1728, and often reprinted until superseded by the later encyclopædias.

41. *When did Annual Registers begin?*—The first was commenced by Robert Dodsley, a bookseller in London, in 1758, and is still carried on. Dodsley, who was originally a footman, wrote a poem, *The Muse in Livery*, and did service to literature as a collector and publisher of old plays and poems.

The Era of the Early Part of the Reign of George III. —1760 to 1800.

42. *Mention the more noted authors of this era.*—Some of the distinguished writers of the reign of George III. had already risen to fame in the reign of George II.—for example, Hume, Smollett, and Johnson. Leaving out these, the following were among the more eminent writers of this period :

Oliver Goldsmith (1728—1774), a native of Ireland, bred to medicine, but an author by profession. He wrote the beautiful and well-known poems, *The Traveller* and *The Deserted Village*; the exquisite novel, *The Vicar of Wakefield*; the plays, *She Stoops to Conquer* and *The Good-natured Man*; besides other works of much excellence.



Oliver Goldsmith.

James Boswell (1740—1795), a young advocate at the Scottish bar, took an extraordinary fancy for Johnson, and frequently visiting him in London, collected his sayings in his celebrated *Life* of that personage, one of the most amusing works ever written. Boswell also narrates his *Tour to the Hebrides* with Johnson in 1773.

James Macpherson (1738—1793), originally a schoolmaster in the Highlands, and acquainted with Gaelic, wrote *The Poems of Ossian*, founded on scraps of poetic legend—which, unfortunately for his reputation, he represented as the real composition of Ossian, son of Fingal, a Celtic hero or bard of the 4th century.

Thomas Chatterton, born 1752, a youth of precocious poetic genius, who in a fit of desperation killed himself with arsenic, 1770, wrote some odes and other poems as avowedly his own productions, but is chiefly remarkable for imposing many others as compositions of the 15th century.

Dr Thomas Percy, latterly Bishop of Dromore, editor of the *Reliques of English Poetry*, in which several old songs and ballads are revived; and Thomas Warton, author of a *History of English Poetry*, were two literary celebrities between 1765 and 1780.

William Falconer, born in Edinburgh about 1730, and bred

a sailor, wrote the *Shipwreck*, a poem which became a favourite from its vivid and accurate descriptions. The author perished at sea, 1769, thus in the end terribly realising his own poetic fancies.

James Beattie (1735—1803), a native of Kincardineshire, attained celebrity as the author of the *Minstrel*, a didactic poem in the Spenserian stanza, also for his ethical work, an *Essay on Truth*.

Christopher Smart, author of the *Song to David* (died 1770); William Mickle, a native of Dumfriesshire, author of *Cumnor Hall*, and other poems of merit (died 1789); and Thomas Moss, author of *The Beggar's Petition* (died 1808), are numbered among the noted writers of this era.

Dr John Wolcot, a physician in London, wrote, between 1778 and 1808, a large number of satirical pieces in verse, under the adopted name of Peter Pindar; these effusions were once exceedingly popular, but are now nearly all forgotten. Wolcot died 1819.

Mrs Barbauld (1743—1825) occupied a respectable place as a literary lady in this era. She wrote poems, lyrical and devotional, and some very excellent essays. Her contributions to *Evenings at Home*, a work for children, are well known.

Sir William Jones (1746—1794), an eminent linguist, with able, statesman-like views, performed important services, by his oriental researches, particularly in connection with the languages and antiquities of India.

Joanna Baillie (1762—1851), daughter of a Scottish parish-minister, wrote a series of dramas, entitled *Plays on the Passions*, which appeared about 1798, but are unsuited for acting.

Richard Brinsley Sheridan, born in Dublin 1751, became celebrated as a writer of clever and popular plays; in 1775, he produced his comedy, *The Rivals*, and shortly afterwards, *The School for Scandal* and *The Critic*. Sheridan had also a political career, his speeches in parliament being marked by flashes of eloquence and wit. From his singular improvidence, he died in distress, 1816.

George Colman the Younger, a comic dramatist, contemporary with Sheridan, wrote a number of popular plays.



Joanna Baillie.

including *The Heir at Law*, and the musical opera of *Inkle and Yarico*, between 1784 and 1800; he afterwards produced a variety of clever poetical effusions.—Died 1836.

Thomas Holcroft (1745—1809) was a noted translator of works from the French, one of the best known of these productions being the *Tales of the Castle*, from the French of Madame de Genlis. He was also the author of thirty plays, the most admired of which is *The Road to Ruin*, a comedy.

Mrs Elizabeth Inchbald, an actress about 1780, gained celebrity as author of two tales, *The Simple Story*, and *Nature and Art*; latterly, she edited a well-known collection of plays.—Died 1821.

Laurence Sterne, born in 1713 at Clonmel, in Ireland, was the son of an officer in the army, and became a clergyman in England; as a novelist, he was next in order of time and genius to Fielding and Smollett. Excelling in the comic and pathetic, he wrote *Tristram Shandy*, which was completed in 1767, and *The Sentimental Journey*, which appeared in 1768, the year of his death.

Horace Walpole, Earl of Orford, third son of Sir Robert Walpole—born 1717, was a noted man of letters in this era. He revived romance-writing by producing *The Castle of Otranto*, but he has had greater fame on account of his *Letters*, which embrace a vast amount of curious information regarding the fashionable world during his time. His dwelling, Strawberry Hill, was an extraordinary museum of curiosities.—Died 1797.

Henry Mackenzie, born at Edinburgh 1745, eminent as the author of *The Man of Feeling*, a novel, which appeared in 1771; he wrote some other novels of less note, and was the principal contributor to the *Mirror* and *Lounger*. He long survived these literary efforts, and died in 1831.

Francess Burney (1752—1842), authoress of *Evelina*, a simple novel of great merit, published in 1778, also of *Cecilia*; afterwards, she was a keeper of the robes to the queen of George III., an office of which she gives an account in her *Diary*, a work in several volumes. Miss Burney was married in 1793 to a French refugee officer, the Count d'Arblay, by whose name she accordingly became known.

William Beckford (1759—1844), a wealthy English gentleman, was the author of *Vathek*, an Arabian tale, which appeared in 1786. Byron praises this romance for its correctness of costume, beauty of description, and power of imagination. Beckford wrote some other works of less note.

Sophia and Harriet Lee, two sisters who died at an advanced

age—the last survivor in 1851—gained celebrity for their *Canterbury Tales*, which appeared in 1797.

Dr John Moore, born at Stirling 1729; some time a medical practitioner in Glasgow, and afterwards in London, was the author of *Zeluco*, and other fictions.—Died 1802. His eldest son was General Sir John Moore, who distinguished himself in the famous retreat in the Peninsula.

Charlotte Smith was the authoress of several popular novels, which appeared about 1790; one of her female contemporaries as a romance-writer was Mrs Ann Radcliffe, who produced her *Mysteries of Udolpho* in 1797.

Dr William Robertson (1721—1793), a minister of the Church of Scotland, was eminent as an historian; his works, which are written in a luminous and elegant style, are, *History of Scotland*, *History of the Reign of Charles V.*, *History of America*, and *Historical Disquisition on Ancient India*—all of which are now standard works in English literature.

Edward Gibbon (1737—1794), was a historian of great erudition and comprehensive and critical intellect. While residing at Lausanne, in Switzerland, in 1787, he completed his *History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, a work involving immense research, and which places the author as the first of English historians; his style, however, though splendid, is not good, and his representation of ecclesiastical history must be received with caution. The work has been translated into almost every European language.



Edward Gibbon.

Dr William Paley (1743—1805), archdeacon of Carlisle, was eminent for his ethical and philosophical writings; his best known works are his *Elements of Moral and Political Philosophy*, published in 1785; his *Horæ Paulinæ* (1790); and his *Natural Theology*, 1802.

Dr Hugh Blair, one of the ministers of Edinburgh, author of *Sermons*, distinguished for their elegance of style (died 1800); Dr Samuel Horsley, bishop of St Asaph, critic and scholar, and author of various controversial disquisitions (died 1806); and Dr Richard Watson, bishop of Llandaff, author of *An Apology for the Bible* (died 1816); occupied a high rank among divines towards the conclusion of the 18th century.

William Wilberforce (1759—1833), eminent as a statesman, philanthropist, and writer on religious subjects; he is most prominent, however, for his extraordinary exertions in favour of the abolition of slavery within the British dominions, which he lived to see effected.

Edmund Burke (1730—1797), a native of Dublin, eminent as a philosophical and eloquent statesman, wrote several political and other treatises; his most famous work is his *Inquiry into the Origin of our Ideas of the Sublime and Beautiful*,¹ but his best is *Reflections on the French Revolution*.

Dr Adam Smith, born at Kirkcaldy 1723, was for some years Professor of Moral Philosophy in the university of Glasgow, where he wrote his *Theory of the Moral Sentiments*. Smith is best known by his *Wealth of Nations*, a work comprehending advanced views of political economy, which appeared in 1776, and remains the great text-book on the subject.

Dr Adam Ferguson 1724—1816), a native of Perthshire, eminent for his learning, was for some years Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh. His chief works are the *History of Civil Society*, published in 1766; *Institutes of Moral Philosophy*, 1769; and *History of the Roman Republic*, 1783—this last the most valuable of all his writings.

Mrs Hannah More (1745—1833), a pious and literary lady, wrote a number of religious and moral treatises, which appeared from 1782 to 1819, but her best known production is a novel, *Celebs in Search of a Wife*, 1809.

James Bruce of Kinnaird, a Scottish gentleman of ancient family and property, born 1730, wrote an account of his *Travels to discover the Sources of the Nile*, which appeared in 1790.—Died 1794.

Mungo Park, a native of Selkirkshire, born 1771, acquired celebrity from his *Travels in Africa*, which appeared 1799, and attained great popularity. This observant and enterprising traveller perished in a second African expedition, 1805.

William Cowper (1731—1800), an eminent poet, spent part of his life as a recluse at Olney, in Buckinghamshire; his chief poems are *Table Talk*, *The Progress of Error*, *The Task*,



Dr Adam Ferguson.

¹ See *Historical Questions*, pages 128, 168.

and *Erpostulation*, but he wrote a number of minor pieces, including *John Gilpin*. His works are mostly didactic, and bear evidence of a thoughtful mind and gentle spirit. Cowper forms a connecting-link between the 18th-century poets and those of later times.

43. *Who was David Garrick?*—He was a celebrated actor of the 18th century, born 1716. Garrick was great alike in comedy and tragedy, and was manager of Drury Lane Theatre for 29 years. He retired from the stage, 1776, and died 1779.

44. *Who were the Kembles?*—They were a remarkable family of actors subsequent to the age of Garrick. The most noted of the group was John Kemble (1757—1823), and his sister Sarah, who became Mrs Siddons (1755—1831), both eminent in representing the tragic characters of Shakspeare.

45. *What were the Ireland forgeries?*—They were forgeries of various documents alleged to be the writings of Shakspeare, executed by a youth, W. H. Ireland (1777—1834). For a time they imposed on the public; but the fraud was at length detected, and ultimately acknowledged, 1805.

46. *What Scottish poets appeared in the second half of the 18th century?*—There were ten or more, whose lyrics and other pieces enrich the National literature of Scotland. The more famed members of the group were as follows:

Lady Anne Lyndsay, who about 1771, wrote the ballad, *Auld Robin Gray*; by marriage, her name became Lady Anne Barnard.—Died 1825.

Miss Elliot and Mrs Cockburn, each the authoress of a version of *The Flowers of the Forest*—both versions are popular.

Robert Fergusson, born at Edinburgh 1750, attained celebrity as a Scottish poet of city-life, and died 1774.

ROBERT BURNS, the greatest of the Scottish poets, son of a small farmer in Ayrshire, born January 25, 1759; his works were first issued in 1786, and at once stamped him as a poet of the highest order. His life was an almost continuous struggle with difficulties, and he died prematurely, July 21, 1796.

Alexander Wilson (1766—1813), a native of Paisley, author



Robert Burns.

of *Watty and Meg* and other poems, chiefly humorous. He emigrated to the United States, and there produced a meritorious work on *American Ornithology*.

Hector Macneill (1746—1818), author of the poem, *Scotland's Skaith, or the History of Will and Jean*, designed to picture the evils of intemperance. Macneill wrote also some popular lyrics.

47. *What was the 'Poetry of the Anti-Jacobin?'*—It consisted of clever poetical effusions contributed to the *Anti-Jacobin*, a weekly paper in London, 1797, which had been established to counteract the wild Jacobin sentiments propagated by the French revolutionists.

48. *Who were the chief writers in the Anti-Jacobin?*—The two most noted were William Gifford, who ultimately became editor of the *Quarterly Review* (died 1826); and George Canning, who attained celebrity as a statesman (died 1827).

49. *What is to be understood by the 'Scotch School' of Philosophy?*—That designation has been applied to a system of sober and rational inquiry into the faculties and modes of operation of the human mind, which originated in Scotland in the 18th century, in opposition to the scepticism of Hume.

50. *Mention some of the more noted Scottish philosophers.*—Dr Thomas Reid, author of an *Inquiry into the Human Mind* (died 1796); Dugald Stewart, author of *Outlines of Moral Philosophy* and other works (died 1828); Dr Thomas Brown (died 1820); and Sir William Hamilton (died 1856), whose profound philosophical works have lately been published.

51. *Mention some of the more eminent men of science in this era.*—John Hunter, eminent in surgical and anatomical science (died 1793); Edward Jenner, who attained universal celebrity as the discoverer of vaccination (died 1823); Joseph Black (died 1799), and Joseph Priestley (died 1804), both distinguished for their discoveries in chemistry and natural philosophy; James Watt, the great perfecter of the steam-engine (died 1819); Sir Joseph Banks, distinguished as a naturalist (died 1820); and Sir William Herschel, a native of Hanover, eminent for his astronomical discoveries (died 1822).

52. *What was the 'Huttonian Theory?'*—It was a theory propounded by James Hutton, an eminent geologist (died 1797), to the effect that certain beds and masses of rock took their form and character from fire, or had been produced by igneous agency.

53. *What was the 'Wernerian Theory'?*—It was to the effect that all rocks, including, of course, those referred to by Hutton, took their form and character from water, or were produced by aqueous agency. This theory was given to the world by Werner, an eminent German mineralogist. The Huttonian is sometimes called the 'Plutonic theory;' while the Wernerian is sometimes called the 'Neptunian theory.'

54. *What is now thought of these contending theories?*—Geologists are generally of opinion that the views of Werner, as far as the rocks referred to by Hutton are concerned, are wrong.

The Era of the Conclusion of the Reign of George III.,
and Reigns of George IV., William IV., and
Victoria—1801 to 1880.

55. *When did Reviews begin?*—The earliest was the *Monthly Review*, begun 1749; and some others were commenced in the 18th century; but the first established of any note was the *Edinburgh Review*, which began in 1802.

56. *By whom was the Edinburgh Review begun?*—It was set on foot by a group of able young writers, of Whig principles, including Francis Jeffrey, Rev. Sydney Smith, Francis Horner, Henry Brougham, and some others.

57. *When was the Quarterly Review begun?*—It was commenced in 1809, by writers professing Tory or Conservative principles, and became the political opponent of the *Edinburgh*.

58. *Mention the more noted writers from the beginning of the 19th century—*

Rev. George Crabbe, born in Suffolk 1754, author of *The Village*, *Parish Register*, *The Borough*, *Tales of the Hall*, and other poems, published between 1781 and 1818. Crabbe has been called 'the poet of the poor,' for many of his simple and pathetic descriptions refer to humble life in rural districts. —Died 1832.

Jeremy Bentham (1748—1832), was an eminent writer on Political Economy and Jurisprudence; he adopted as his standard principle in social questions, 'the greatest happiness of the greatest number'—a phrase often since quoted.

Samuel Rogers, son of a banker in London, born 1763, was the author of various poems which were issued only after long and patient study. Rogers was essentially the poet of taste. His principal poems are *Pleasures of Memory*,

Human Life, and *Italy*. After being a noted man of letters for the greater part of a century, he died 1855.

William Wordsworth, born in Cumberland 1770, author of *The Excursion*, a philosophical poem in blank verse; *The White Doe of Rylstone*, *Sonnets on the River Duddon*, and numerous minor poems, abounding in pathos, grace of imagery, and subtle beauty of language. His noble sonnets have rarely, if ever, been surpassed. The term 'Lake School,' applied to Wordsworth and his personal friends and brother-poets, Coleridge and Southey, has little or no meaning, and is now falling into disuse.—Died 1850.



William Wordsworth.

Samuel Taylor Coleridge, born in Devonshire 1772, a profound thinker and imaginative poet, wrote numerous poems, of which the three most appreciated are *Christabel*, *Gertrude*, and *The Ancient Mariner*.—Died 1834.

Robert Southey, born at Bristol 1774, was noted not only as a poet, but as a biographer, antiquary, critic, and historian. While young, he wrote a poem, *Wat Tyler*, which he afterwards withdrew: his later and best known poems are *Thalaba*, *The Curse of Kehama*, and *Roderick, the Last of the Goths*. His most popular prose works are the *Life of Nelson*, and *Life of John Wesley*; he wrote numerous articles in the *Quarterly Review*, and was the author altogether of above 100 volumes. Southey was appointed poet laureate in 1813.—Died 1843.

Charles Lamb, born in London 1775, poet and essayist, was remarkable for his humour and kindness of feeling. His poems are now little heard of, and his fame rests chiefly on his essays, which were contributed to the *London Magazine* under the signature of *Elia*. By this assumed designation, Lamb is best known in literature. Died 1834.

Thomas Moore, born in Dublin 1779, became distinguished for his sentimental lyrics and his poetical satires. The more conspicuous of his political satires were his *Twopenny Post-bag* and *The Fudge Family in Paris*; but these and all his other poetical effusions have been obscured by the brilliancy of his *Irish Melodies*, and his *Lalla Rookh*, both alike imperishable.—Died 1852.

Thomas Campbell, born in Glasgow 1777, and for a time a tutor in the island of Mull, was the author of the *Pleasures of Hope*, which appeared in 1799, and at once placed its youthful

author in the first rank of poets. Campbell afterwards wrote *Gertrude of Wyoming*, and other poems; also several songs, two of which, *The Exile of Erin*, and *Ye Mariners of England*, will ever remain popular.—Died 1844.

WALTER SCOTT, born in Edinburgh 1771, was eminent as a poet, but more so as a novelist. He began his literary career as an editor of old ballads, a collection of which, with some modern imitations, was published under the title of *Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border*. His first poem, *The Lay of the Last Minstrel*, appeared in 1802, and was succeeded by *Marmion*, *The Lady of the Lake*, and *The Lord of the Isles*; these, and most of his other poems, were exceedingly fluent and descriptive, and marked by strong national feeling. *Waverley*, the first of his celebrated novels, appeared in 1814. He was created a baronet by George IV. Scott died at Abbotsford, his favourite country residence on the Tweed, 1832.

George Gordon Byron, LORD BYRON, born in London 1788, was one of the most eminent English poets of this era. His first volume of poetry, entitled *Hours of Idleness*, appeared in 1807, and on its being reviewed unfavourably by the *Edinburgh Review*, he was provoked to write a severe satire, *English Bards and Scotch Reviewers*. In 1812 appeared the first part of his *Childe Harold*, and afterwards he produced in quick succession *The Giaour*, *Bride of Abydos*, *Corsair*, *Lara*, *Siege of Corinth*, *Prisoner of Chillon*, and other poems. Byron excelled in painting strong and gloomy passions, and no poet in modern times has so effectually stirred the depths of the human heart. His great work is *Childe Harold*, a noble poem in the Spenserian stanza.—Died in Greece 1824.



Byron.

William Hazlitt was a miscellaneous writer, whose criticisms on poetry, the drama, and the fine arts, and also his essays, shew a bold and vigorous mind; his sparkling and pungent style is particularly fascinating.—Died 1830.

Rev. Sydney Smith, a clergyman of the Church of England, born 1771, began his literary career as one of the originators of the *Edinburgh Review*. He produced a number of works of passing interest, poetical and satirical, all in the cause of social amelioration, and marked by a fine genial spirit. He died 1845, and an amusing memoir

of his life has been given to the world by his daughter, Lady Holland.

59. *Mention some noted poets contemporary with, or successors to, Scott and Byron.*—Percy Bysshe Shelley (drowned 1822); James-Henry Leigh Hunt, ordinarily called Leigh Hunt, who was eminent as an essayist as well as a poet (died 1859); John Keats (died 1821); James Montgomery, religious poet (died 1854); and Thomas Hood, eminent for his humorous and pathetic poetry (died 1845).

60. *Mention some of the minor but popular poets of this era.*—Henry Kirke White (died 1806); John Leyden (died 1811); Rev. James Grahame (died 1811); John Clare, known as the 'Northamptonshire Peasant' (died 1864); James and Horace Smith, authors of the *Rejected Addresses*; and Mrs Hemans (died 1835).

61. *Mention some poets in the early part of the 19th century who used the Scottish dialect.*—James Hogg, known as the 'Ettrick Shepherd,' author of *The Queen's Wake*, and the greatest Scottish poet after Burns (died 1835); Robert Tannahill, author of several fine lyrics (died 1810); and Allan Cunningham, ballad and song writer (died 1842). Those of less note were James Mayne, William Tennant, and Sir Alexander Boswell. Latterly, some beautiful and popular Scottish lyrics have been written by James Ballantine, Edinburgh.

62. *Who was John Wilson?*—He was a poet, novelist, and miscellaneous writer, born at Paisley 1785; but though a Scotsman by birth, his writings belong to English literature. He was a noted contributor to *Blackwood's Magazine*, in which he was known as 'Christopher North.' Wilson was some years Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh.—Died 1854.

63. *Mention some eminent novelists of this era.*—Besides Scott and Wilson, the list of novelists includes J. G. Lockhart, John Galt, Theodore Hook, Samuel Lover, C. J. Lever, John Banim, William Carleton, W. H. Ainsworth, G. P. R. James, Anthony Trollope, and Benjamin Disraeli (Earl of Beaconsfield)—the latter writer being also a distinguished statesman.



John Wilson.

64. *Mention the more eminent of these female novelists.*—Mrs Opie, Lady Morgan (originally Miss Owenson), Miss Austen, Mrs Brunton, Miss Mitford, Miss Ferrier, Mrs S. C. Hall, Mrs Trollope, Miss Brontë (better known by her pseudonym of Currer Bell), Miss Evans (who wrote under the name of George Eliot), Mrs Henry Wood, and Miss Mulock. But this list could be greatly enlarged.

65. *Mention four celebrated writers of fiction of our own times.*—W. M. Thackeray (died 1863); Douglas Jerrold (died 1857); Charles Dickens (died 1870); and Sir Edward Bulwer Lytton (died 1873).

66. *Mention four eminent historians of our own times.*—Lord Macaulay (died 1859), author of *The History of England, from the Accession of James II.*; J. A. Froude, author of *The History of England from the fall of Wolsey to the Death of Elizabeth*, a work, the first part of which was written to vindicate the character of Henry VIII.; George Grote (died 1871), author of *The History of Greece*, a work of great erudition; and Sir Archibald Alison (died 1867), author of *The History of Europe from the Commencement of the French Revolution*.

67. *Mention some distinguished scientific writers in the present century.*—Sir Humphrey Davy, noted for his discoveries in chemistry (died 1829); John Dalton, also eminent for chemical discoveries, particularly as concerns gases (died 1844); Sir Charles Lyell (died 1875); and Sir Roderick Impey Murchison (died 1871), eminent geologists; Sir David Brewster (died 1868), eminent for his discoveries in natural philosophy; Hugh Miller, a popular illustrator of geology (died 1856); Richard Owen, eminent for his expositions of natural history and physiology; and Sir John Herschel (died 1871), eminent for his astronomical speculations, and his brilliant success in diffusing a knowledge of his favourite science.

68. *Mention some noted miscellaneous writers in our own times.*—Thomas De Quincey, an essayist distinguished for subtlety of fancy and intellect (died 1859); John Ramsay McCulloch, writer on political economy (died 1864); Rev. Dr Thomas Chalmers, author of various theological works (died 1847); Thomas Carlyle (died 1881), author of *The French Revolution*, and many other historical and politico-moral works; John Stuart Mill (died 1873), author of works on logic and political economy; Henry, Lord Brougham (died 1868), writer of *Memoirs of the Statesmen of the Reign of George III.*, and many other works; John, Lord Campbell (died 1861), author of *Lives of the Chancellors*; and John, Earl Russell, a distinguished statesman, and author of several works (died 1878).

69. *Mention an eminent English poet in the reign of Victoria.*—Alfred Tennyson, born 1809, author of *In Memoriam*, *Idylls of the King*, and other poems. He became poet-laureate in 1851, and in 1883 he was raised to the peerage under the title of Baron Tennyson.

70. *What is the office of poet-laureate?*—It is an office in the gift of the sovereign, which originated about the reign of Edward IV. Until recent times, the duty of the laureate was to write an ode on the birthday of the sovereign, and sometimes on the occasion of a national victory. The office is now honorary, with emoluments amounting to £127 annually.



Alfred Tennyson.

71. *What is the 'Harleian Collection'?*—It is a collection of valuable manuscripts in the British Museum, purchased by parliament in the reign of George IV. The collection was formed by Robert Harley, Earl of Oxford, an eminent statesman and great patron of literature, who died 1724.

72. *When was the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge established?*—It was established in 1825, and in 1827 it commenced to issue treatises, the first of which was written by Lord Brougham. The society existed only a few years, but was of great service in promoting a popular taste for literature.

73. *When did cheap literature of the kind now prevalent begin?*—It began in 1832, in the reign of William IV. One of the most eminent pioneers of this species of popular literature was Charles Knight, London.

74. *Mention a remarkable change that has taken place in literature.*—The decline of dramatic and poetic literature, and a corresponding increase in the number of novels, written less to depict real life than to excite and startle—ordinarily called 'sensational novels': such a marked change being coincident with alterations in public taste.

75. *What is 'copyright'?*—It is a right of property possessed by authors in the works they compose, which right they can sell or assign. In the United Kingdom, the right, with some qualifications, is valid for 42 years, or during the lifetime of the author. The law of copyright dates only from the reign of Queen Anne.

76. *What is 'liberty of the press?'*—It is the printing and vending of books, newspapers, and other kinds of literature without interruption from any public authority. This freedom prevails in its fullest extent in the United Kingdom, the only statutory restriction imposed being on the issue of works of an immoral tendency.

77. *Has literature been successfully cultivated in the United States of America?* Yes; but only in recent times, when there have been numerous writers, whose works exhibit the same characteristics as those of their English contemporaries.

78. *Mention some of the earlier American writers.*

Benjamin Franklin, man of science and statesman, who, besides *Essays* and miscellaneous papers, wrote his *Autobiography*, an amusing work which details his youthful struggles as a printer.—Died 1790.

Jonathan Edwards, died 1758, and Timothy Dwight, died 1830; both eminent for their theological writings.

Charles Brockden Brown, celebrated for his novels—*Arthur Mervyn* and others—which appeared from 1798 to 1804.—Died 1809.

79. *Mention some more recent American writers.*

George Bancroft (born 1800), eminent for his *History of America* and other works.

Washington Irving, historical and miscellaneous writer, but best known as author of the *Sketch-Book* (died 1859).

W. H. Prescott, author of *The History of Ferdinand and Isabella*, and other works (died 1859).

Ralph W. Emerson, a very subtle metaphysician of the transcendental school (died 1882).

James Russell Lowell (d. 1861), author of the *Biglow Papers*.

J. K. Paulding (died 1860), Edgar Allan Poe (died 1849), and W. C. Bryant (died 1878), poets.

Dr Noah Webster (died 1843), celebrated for his *Dictionary of the English Language*.

Nathaniel Hawthorne (died 1864), J. F. Cooper (died 1851), and Mrs Harriet Beecher Stowe, novelists.

The most popular of modern American poets is Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, author of *Evangeline*, the *Song of Hiawatha*, and other poems (died 1882).¹

¹ For full information concerning English Literature, students may consult the *Cyclopædia of English Literature*, edited by Robert Chambers, LL.D., 2 vols. 8vo.

The Fine Arts.

1. *What are the Fine Arts?*—They include Painting, Sculpture, Architecture, Music, and other branches of art of a refined or ornamental nature.

Painting.

2. *In what does Painting consist?*—It consists in the representation of natural and artificial objects by means of colours on walls, canvas, paper, and other flat surfaces.

3. *Mention some of the leading departments in the art of painting.*—Historical painting, landscape painting, marine painting, portrait painting, animal painting, and the painting of droll scenes and familiar objects. Historical painting, which embraces subjects in scripture and civil history, is considered to be the highest department in the art.

4. *Is the art of painting of ancient date?*—Yes; it was practised in Egypt at a very remote period, and in ancient Greece, and in Rome.

5. *Who was Apelles?*—He was the most renowned of the Grecian painters, and flourished between 336 and 306 B.C. For some years he practised his art at the court of Philip of Macedon, and executed a picture of Alexander the Great. The finest of Apelles's paintings was his *Venus rising from the Sea*, with a shower of silver drops falling round her like a veil of gauze.

6. *What is Perspective?*—It is the science which teaches the art of depicting and placing objects in the manner in which they appear to the eye in nature—the parts which are near being larger than those at a distance, according to certain rules and proportions.

7. *What are Pigments?*—They are the colouring substances employed by painters, and usually consist of chemical and mechanical preparations of metals united with oil—the result being what is termed 'oil painting,' as distinguished from painting with water-colours or with size.

8. *Who were the Byzantine artists?*—They were artists of Byzantium or Constantinople, by whom the art of painting was preserved during the middle ages, and communicated by

them to Italy, Germany, and other countries early in the 13th century.

9. *From whom did the Byzantine artists and their successors receive encouragement in Italy and elsewhere?*—They received encouragement from successive popes and wealthy ecclesiastics, who employed them to decorate places of public worship with subjects from sacred history.

10. *Mention two of the noted early Italian painters.*—Cimabue, who flourished about 1270, and Giotto, about 1300; but there were several others.

11. *What is meant by schools of painting?*—By ‘schools’ is signified styles of treating subjects which have been adopted in different cities and countries. Thus, there are the Roman, Florentine, Bolognese, and Venetian, which constitute the Italian schools; also the French, Spanish, Flemish, Dutch, and English schools.

12. *Mention the three greatest painters of the Italian schools.*—Leonardo da Vinci, Michael Angelo, and Raphael, all of whom flourished at the beginning of the 16th century, and gave a new character to art.

13. *What was the most celebrated work of Leonardo da Vinci?*—The *Last Supper*, a painting executed on an inner wall in a monastery at Milan about the year 1500; this great work, which has been often copied in engravings, is now in a very decayed condition.

14. *Who was Raphael?*—He was the greatest of the Italian painters. His proper name was Raffaello Sanzio of Urbino; he was born in 1483, and died when 37 years of age, 1520. His instructor was Perugino, a famed Italian artist. During his short career, Raphael rose to the highest fame as an artist, and he stands at the head of the Roman school. His chaste nobleness of design, simplicity and beauty of proportion, and truth to nature, are his leading characteristics. His greatest picture is the *Transfiguration*, in the Vatican at Rome. He is called by the Italians the ‘Divine Raphael.’



Raphael.

15. *What are the Cartoons of Raphael?*—They are paintings in water-colours on stout paper, representing subjects from

the New Testament, designed as patterns for tapestry ; seven of these were purchased by Charles I., and were placed in Hampton Court.

16. *State some particulars concerning Michael Angelo.*—His name, in full, was Michael Angelo Buonarrotti ; he was born in Tuscany, 1474. Although placed at the head of the Florentine school, his great works were executed in Rome—his most famous production being the *Last Judgment*, which is painted on the ceiling and end wall of the Sistine chapel, and is remarkable for its representation of the grand and the terrible. Michael Angelo, who was great in sculpture and architecture, as well as in painting, died 1563.

17. *Who was Correggio ?*—He was the founder of the school of Parma or Lombardy, which had for its chief characteristics a harmony of colours and a powerful contrast of light and shade. Correggio died 1534. His most famous picture, called *La Notte* (The Night), is in the collection at Dresden ; it represents the Virgin bending over the infant Jesus, from whom streams a celestial light, which irradiates surrounding objects—a marvellous triumph of art.

18. *Who was Titian ?*—He was a very eminent painter of the Venetian school, born about 1480, and a contemporary of Correggio. The most celebrated of Titian's pictures is the *Assumption of the Virgin*, which he painted for an altar-piece in 1516 ; it is considered to be one of the finest pictures in the world. Titian died 1576, and was succeeded in the Venetian school by Tintoretto and Paul Veronese.

19. *Who was Canaletto ?*—He was a later painter of the Venetian school, who died in London, 1768. His pictures, which are exceedingly fine, represent architectural subjects, chiefly the palaces of Venice.

20. *Who were the Caraccis ?*—They were three noted painters, founders of the Bolognese school, kinsmen and fellow-labourers, who flourished about 1600. Some of the finest works of Annibal Caracci are in Bologna. The Caraccis were followed by Domenichino (died 1641), and Guido Reni, both of whom have left grand pictures on sacred subjects.

21. *Who was Albert Dürer ?*—He has been styled the father of the German school of painting, and prince of artists. He was born at Nürnberg, 1471, and distinguished himself in youth by his exquisite carving ; he subsequently adopted painting as his profession. He excelled in originality and accuracy of design. Albert Dürer died 1528.

22. *Who was Holbein?*—Hans Holbein was a painter of the German school, a contemporary of Albert Dürer; removing to England, he executed several portraits of Henry VIII.; born 1498; died 1554.

23. *Who was Salvator Rosa?*—He was an Italian artist of extraordinary genius—painter, poet, musician, and actor—born 1615; he practised painting at Rome, where he was at the height of his reputation in 1639. His favourite landscapes are gloomy and romantic solitudes, which are painted with great force of imagination.—Died 1673.

24. *Who was Claude Lorraine?*—He was a great landscape painter; his proper name was Claude Gélée, and he had the name Lorraine from being born in that province of France, 1600. Claude practised his art at Rome, and became remarkable for his exquisite representation of rural scenery.—Died 1682.



Claude Lorraine.

25. *Mention two leading masters of the French school.*—Nicholas Poussin (died 1665), and Charles Le Brun (died 1690). Poussin was celebrated for his landscapes, with scriptural and classic figures, which possess a certain poetic feeling. Le Brun, who was of Scottish extraction, executed various historical paintings for Louis XIV.

26. *Who were the Vernets?*—There have been three notable French painters of that name—father, son, and grandson. The first, Claude Joseph Vernet, born at Avignon, 1714, was renowned for his sea-pieces, with shipping, which are well known from engravings. The second, Carle Vernet, born 1758, was equally celebrated for his battle-pieces. The third, Horace Vernet, born 1789, attained distinction for his gigantic pictures representing events in recent French history, which embellish the walls of the royal palaces.

27. *Who was Watteau?*—He was a French painter, born 1684, whose style of art is very peculiar. Watteau's pictures represent rural fêtes, with fancifully-dressed shepherds and shepherdesses—a species of Arcadian poetry on canvas; died 1721. A scene with people of fashion scattered theatrically about among trees, is said to be 'after Watteau.'

28. *Who was Greuze?*—He was a celebrated French painter,

born 1726, who carried art forward to the 19th century. Greuze excelled in exciting and pathetic scenes—his series of pictures depicting the history of a prodigal son, in the Gallery of the Louvre, being perhaps the best known. He has been styled the 'French Hogarth.'—Died 1805.

29. *Who was David?*—He was a French painter, greatly encouraged by Napoleon I., and gained celebrity as the founder of a French classical style, which is now, however, regarded as too formal.—Died 1825. Paul de la Roche (died 1856) held a high place in the French school of historical painting.

30. *Who is Rosa Bonheur?*—She is a French lady, born at Bordeaux, 1822, who has gained celebrity as an animal painter. Her pictures are remarkable for their beauty, vigour, and fidelity to nature.



Rosa Bonheur.

31. *Who was Rubens?*—Peter Paul Rubens, born 1577, stands at the head of the Flemish school of painters. He excelled in colouring and boldness of execution; all his figures being remarkable for strong physical development. The grandest pictures of Rubens represent Scripture subjects, one of the best known of which is the *Descent from the Cross*, in the cathedral at Antwerp.—Died 1640.

32. *Who are the other noted painters of the Flemish school?*—Anthony Van Dyck, died in England, 1641; David Teniers the Younger, celebrated for vivid transparent effects—died 1694; and Snijders, noted for hunting scenes—died 1657.

33. *Who was Rembrandt?*—Rembrandt was a painter admitted to be the head of the Dutch school, born 1606. His pictures are noted for originality of design, and a rich golden tone of colouring.—Died 1669.

34. *Who was Paul Potter?*—He was an eminent painter of the Dutch school, born 1625. His grandest and best known piece is his *Bull*, now in a national collection at the Hague, which is visited by innumerable tourists for the pleasure of seeing this single picture.—Died 1654.

35. *Mention some other distinguished painters of the Dutch school.*—Cuyp, Terburgh, Ostade, Hobbima, Karl du Jarden, Jan Steen, Van de Velde, Ruisdaal, Gerard Douw, Berghem, and Wouwermans—all of whom flourished in the 17th century.

36. *What is a general characteristic of the Dutch school?*—Many of the pictures, particularly those of Ostade and the elder Teniers, represent scenes of low humour; others have a higher aim. Ruisdaal is celebrated for his dashing water-falls, and Berghem and Wouverman for their beautiful small pictures representing subjects with animals.

37. *Mention two great masters in the Spanish school.*—Velasquez, who died 1660; and Murillo, who died 1682. Murillo is by far the most eminent Spanish painter, and his works are numerous and highly prized. He is well known for pictures of beggar-boys, also for his sacred subjects, particularly the *Virgin and Child*, in which he excels.

38. *Who was Spagnoletto?*—He was a native of Spain, named Ribera, but proceeding, while young, to Italy, he was there called Spagnoletto or the little Spaniard, by which he became known in art. He excels as a painter of gloomy and ghastly subjects, such as martyrdoms and heads of aged and dying monks, all strikingly faithful to nature.—Died 1656.

39. *When did painting rise to eminence in England?*—Not till the 18th century; but previously, through the encouragement given to the fine arts by Charles I., a class of native painters had begun to rise up.

40. *Who was Sir Peter Lely?*—He was a native of Westphalia, born 1617 or 1618, who came to England, and was appointed state-painter by Charles II., who had known him in Holland. Lely is best known for his charmingly executed portraits of the beauties of the court of Charles II.—Died 1680.

41. *Who was Hogarth?*—William Hogarth, born 1697, was the first distinguished English painter, and with him the English school commenced; he was at the height of his fame in 1745. Hogarth's chief pictures were moral and satiric; those best known being the *March to Finchley*, *Marriage à la Mode*, and the *Rake's Progress*. These, and his other pictures, all highly esteemed, have been often engraved.—Died 1764.



William Hogarth.

42. *Who was Sir Joshua Reynolds?*—He was the greatest of English portrait-painters, born 1723. He excelled in style and colouring—his pictures being soft and delicate in tone,

with a high intellectual quality. He was the first President of the Royal Academy, founded 1768, and delivered *Discourses on Painting*, which, often printed, form a valuable manual for young and aspiring artists.—Died 1792.

43. *Mention some noted English painters contemporary with Reynolds.*—Gainsborough, a painter of portraits, also of cottage-doors and other rural scenes—died 1788; Benjamin West, a historical painter—died 1820; and John Opie—died 1807. One of the greatest of Reynolds's successors in portrait painting was Sir Thomas Lawrence (1769—1830).

44. *Who are the Landseers?*—They are a family of artists—the father, John Landseer, an engraver (died in his 83d year, 1852), and three sons; Thomas, engraver; Charles, a painter; and Sir Edwin (died 1873), celebrated for his numerous fine paintings of deer and other animals.

45. *Mention some other noted English painters of recent years.*—Turner, famed for landscapes (died 1851); Stanfield (died 1867), celebrated for sea-pieces; Ward, eminent as a historical painter; Mulready (died 1863), famed for his pictures representing domestic and familiar subjects; Frith, noted for his success in pieces representing a multitude of figures; and Cooper, painter of cattle-pieces, &c.

46. *Who was the earliest Scottish painter?*—The first native painter in Scotland was George Jamesone, born in Aberdeen about 1586; after studying under Rubens at Antwerp, he attained eminence as a portrait painter in his native country. Died at Edinburgh, 1644.

47. *When did a school of painters arise in Scotland?*—In the 18th century, through the instructions given by an institution called the 'Board of Trustees,' established to encourage different departments of art. Latterly, the fine arts in Scotland have been promoted by the *Royal Scottish Academy*.

48. *Mention some distinguished Scottish painters.*—Alexander Nasmyth (1758—1840), a distinguished landscape painter; Sir David Wilkie (1785—1841), inimitable in his domestic scenes; Sir Henry Raeburn (1756—1823), a portrait painter, whose works are remarkable for their delicacy and richness of colour; Rev. John Thomson (1778—1840), landscape painter; and David Roberts (1796—1864), celebrated



David Roberts.

for his grand architectural pieces : for most part of his life, however, Roberts pursued his profession in London. Besides these, Scotland has lately produced a host of painters—John Phillip, Thomas Faed, Horatio MacCulloch, Noel Paton, George Harvey, &c.—well known in the higher branches of art.

49. *What are 'gallery pictures'?*—They are paintings of a large size, adapted for public galleries, and are so called to distinguish them from 'cabinet pictures,' or those of a small size suited for ordinary apartments.

50. *What is meant by 'kit-cat' pictures?*—The term *kit-cat* is applied to portraits on canvas measuring about 23 inches broad by 36 inches in depth ; it originated in the fact of Sir Godfrey Kneller, a painter in the early part of the 18th century, having executed portraits that size of members of the Kit-cat Club. This club took its name from Kit (or Christopher) Cat, in whose tavern it held its meetings.

51. *What are 'genre' pictures?*—The French word *genre* signifies 'kind,' and is employed to designate pictures of some special variety. The best known *genre* pictures are those with figures having a certain moral aim—pictures, in fact, which tell a story, but do not attain the character of being historical. For example, the chief productions of Hogarth, Greuze, Wilkie, and Mulready are *genre* pictures.

52. *What are 'Pre-Raphaelite' pictures?*—They are pictures by certain painters who believe that they adhere to the principles which they conceive to have guided the art that prevailed previous to Raphael. Such pictures are usually characterised by considerable attention to minutiae.

53. *What is meant by the 'aureola' in art?*—The *aureola* is a halo of light or glory depicted around divine persons ; the term is from *aurum*, Latin for gold. When the aureola is limited to the head, it is styled a *nimbus*, Latin for a cloud. The nimbus is sometimes in the form of a ring. These symbols were originally pagan, and introduced into Christian art by the Byzantine painters.

54. *What is 'Fresco' painting?*—The Italian word *fresco* signifies 'fresh or cool,' and is applied to painting on freshly-laid plaster. The painting is in water-colours, which become incorporated with the moist plaster, and produce a vivid and permanent effect. Fresco painting was adopted with success by Maclise, Dyce, and Herbert, in adorning the Houses of Parliament, Westminster, with subjects of historical interest.

55. *What is 'Photography'?*—It is a process of recent origin

(in which the sun's light and certain chemicals are employed), for the purpose of producing pictorial representations, chiefly small likenesses. The term is from the Greek *phos*, light, and *grapho*, I write. To M. Daguerre, a French painter (died 1851), the honour is chiefly due of having been concerned in bringing the process into practical use about 1839.

56. *What is the date of the oldest painted glass-windows in Europe?*—The oldest existing coloured glass-windows are found in certain churches in Germany and France, and date from the 10th to the 12th centuries. Some in England are as old as the 14th century. The art of staining glass for church windows has lately undergone great improvement as respects colour, drawing, and mechanical details.

Sculpture, &c.

57. *What are the Plastic arts?*—The term *plastic* is from a Greek word signifying 'to form,' and is applied to sculpture, pottery, and other arts by which rude masses of matter are fashioned into shape.

58. *In what manner is sculpture practised?*—Its higher department consists in carving marble or some other kind of stone into forms imitative of the human figure. Usually, as a guide, the artist first forms a model in clay of the required figure, and copies it with his chisel.

59. *Is sculpture an ancient art?*—Yes; it was practised in ancient times by the Assyrians, Egyptians, Etrurians, Greeks, and Romans, specimens of whose sculptures are preserved in museums.

60. *By whom was sculpture carried to a high degree of perfection?*—By the Greeks, who are admitted to have excelled all other nations in ancient and modern times.

61. *To what special circumstance has the superiority of Greek sculpture been ascribed?*—It is thought to have been greatly promoted by the frequent public exercises and games, which were calculated to develop the best proportions in the human form; also to a high sentiment of veneration for the gods, and the wish to represent them in the highest style of art—hence the elegant sculptures of gods and goddesses in marble, to place in groves and temples.

62. *What is the 'ideal' in art?*—The 'ideal' is that perfection which exists only in the imagination. The ordinary human figure being more or less imperfect, sculptors, in forming figures of gods or goddesses, endeavoured to avoid

every mortal blemish, and to give expression to the highest conceptions of grace and dignity.

63. *Has the 'ideal' of beauty, then, no actual counterpart in nature?*—It has not ; and yet, by its harmony and chasteness of design, it pleases the eye, and excites agreeable emotions. The ideal is therefore the poetry of art, and it was in this lofty quality that the Greek sculptors had no rivals.

64. *When did Greek sculpture attain a perfect condition?*—In the time of Pericles, a ruler of Athens, and great patron of art, about 440 B.C. He employed Phidias to embellish Athens ; and in the works of that artist sculpture attained to the sublime in execution. Phidias has been called the 'sculptor of the gods.'

65. *What were the grandest works of Phidias?*—The Olympian Zeus or Jupiter, at Elis ; and the Athene or Minerva, in the Parthenon at Athens. The nude parts of both figures were in ivory, the draperies of solid gold, and the eyes were precious stones. These figures are believed to have been the grandest ever produced by the art of sculpture. Phidias died about 432 B.C.

66. *What is sculpture in 'bas-relief'?*—It is sculpture raised in relief to a moderate degree on a flat surface ; when the sculpture is raised so as to project boldly it is called *alto-relievo* (Italian for 'high-relief'). Sculpture in *alto-relievo* was brought to perfection by Phidias.



Portion of Elgin Marbles.

67. *What are the Elgin Marbles?*—They are a collection of ancient sculptures, chiefly from the Acropolis at Athens,

where, about 1801, they were obtained at great cost and trouble by Thomas, seventh Earl of Elgin, and transferred to England. They were purchased by government in 1816, and are now in the British Museum.

68. *Describe the Elgin marbles.*—Those most appreciated are slabs of marble with figures in relief, which constituted the frieze of the cella of the Parthenon, and fifteen of the metopes representing the battle of the Centaurs and Lapithæ. The figures, mostly equestrian, represent a grand festive procession in honour of Minerva, which took place once in five years. This series of sculptures was executed by Phidias, and by others under his direction. Casts of the marbles are well known to students of art.

69. *What is the Apollo Belvidere?*—It is a celebrated Greek statue of Apollo, which, after being lost for ages, was discovered in 1503; it takes its present name from being placed in the Belvidere Gallery of the Vatican. The figure, upwards of 7 feet in height, is regarded as embodying the highest ideal of manly beauty.

70. *What is the Venus de' Medici?*—It is a statue of Venus, executed by an unknown Greek sculptor, which was found in the ruins of Hadrian's villa at Tivoli, and after being placed in the gardens of the Medici at Rome, was transferred to a collection of sculpture at Florence, 1695. The figure is small—only about 4 feet 11 inches high; but it is greatly prized as an ideal of female beauty.

71. *Mention other two celebrated Greek sculptures.*—The *Laocoon*, in the Vatican, and the *Dying Gladiator*, in the museum of the capitol at Rome.

72. *Who was Praxiteles?*—He was an eminent Greek sculptor, who flourished about 360 B.C. Under him and his contemporary Lysippus, sculpture was in its highest perfection in point of execution, but their conceptions were less chaste and noble than those of Phidias.

73. *What was the character of Roman sculpture?*—It was much inferior to that of Greece; but it was cultivated to some extent under Augustus and immediately succeeding emperors. Many of the finest sculptures of Greece were brought to Rome, where a number have been excavated from ruins.

74. *When did sculpture revive in Italy?*—It experienced a revival at the beginning of the 15th century, when a number of artists arose. One of these was Lorenzo Ghiberti, a Florentine, who flourished between 1420 and 1450.

75. *Mention a great work of Ghiberti.*—Two of the large bronze doors of the Baptistery in the cathedral at Florence. Each door is in two leaves—the whole divided into square panels, embellished with scriptural subjects in relief. The execution of the first door occupied twenty-three years. Casts of these ‘Ghiberti gates,’ as they are called, are in the Crystal Palace at Sydenham.

76. *Who was Benvenuto Cellini?*—He was an eminent Italian sculptor, born at Florence 1500; he was particularly celebrated for his skill in embossing shields with classic figures.—Died 1570.

77. *Who was Canova?*—Antonio Canova was a recent Italian sculptor, born 1757, and noted for his many fine figures in the ancient Greek style. He practised his art at Rome.—Died 1822.

78. *Who was Flaxman?*—John Flaxman was an English sculptor of eminence, born at York 1755. He pursued his profession in London, where, as Professor of Sculpture to the Royal Academy, he delivered a series of valuable lectures on art.—Died 1826.

79. *Who was Thorwaldsen?*—Bertel (or Albert) Thorwaldsen was an eminent Danish sculptor, born at Copenhagen, 1770. His principal works were executed in Rome. The best known of his productions is a magnificent frieze of great length, representing the *Triumphant Entry of Alexander*



Portion of Triumphant Entry of Alexander into Babylon.

into Babylon, executed to the order of Napoleon 1812, as a decoration for an imperial residence at Rome.—Died 1843.

80. *What is the Ceramic art?*—It is the department of the plastic arts which is concerned with fashioning objects in clay

—the art of the potter ; the term ceramic is from the Greek word *keramos*, ‘potter’s clay.’

81. *By whom was the ceramic art highly cultivated in ancient times?*—The art was brought to great perfection by the Etruscans or Tusci, an ingenious people who inhabited Etruria, or the part of Italy now called Tuscany. The Etruscans were at the height of artistic glory about 700 B. C., when the Roman nation was only beginning.

82. *What is Majolica?*—It is a term applied to a certain kind of pottery, coarse, but highly coloured and glazed, which was introduced into Italy from Majorca about the 12th century, and was the manufacture of the Moors.

83. *When was the ceramic art revived in Italy?*—It was revived from about 1520 to 1560, chiefly by adopting the classical figures of Raphael, Julio Romano, and other eminent artists. Italian pottery of this period is now highly valued.

84. *Who was Palissy?*—Bernard Palissy was a French potter, born about 1510, who became famous for his glass paintings and beautifully-figured pottery. For a time, he carried on his art under royal protection at the Tuileries, where some of his furnaces have lately been discovered.—Died 1590.

85. *What is the Portland vase?*—It is an ancient cinerary urn, of transparent dark-blue glass, which was found near Rome about the middle of the 16th century ; it was at first deposited in the Barberini Palace, but was subsequently transferred to England in 1770, and was purchased by the Duchess of Portland for eighteen hundred guineas. Hence, it has been called the Portland vase.

86. *Where is now the Portland vase?*—It was deposited in the British Museum, 1810, where it remains, but is not now shewn to the public, in consequence of a person having mischievously broken it with a stone (1845). The vase, however, has been neatly repaired.

87. *Who was Josiah Wedgwood?*—He was an eminent English potter, born 1730, who introduced a high style in



Portland Vase.

the ceramic art in England. After an honourable and useful career, he died 1795.

88. *What is engraving?*—There are several kinds of engraving designed to represent pictures. Engraving on copper or steel plates consists in cutting lines on the metal—which lines being filled with ink (and the surface of the plate wiped clean), yield impressions on paper. This is called engraving in *intaglio*, an Italian term signifying ‘to cut or carve in.’

89. *What is etching?*—It is a particular kind of engraving, in which an acid is employed to eat out or corrode lines in the metal plate.

90. *What is wood-engraving?*—It consists in cutting figures in relief on the surface of a smooth piece of boxwood, which figures, when inked (all the other parts of the surface being cut away), produce impressions on paper in the manner of a type.

91. *Is wood-engraving of old date?*—Yes; it began to be practised in Germany and other countries about 1400, or 30 to 40 years before the invention of printing. It was at first used for the purpose of stamping or printing playing-cards and figures illustrative of Scripture subjects.

92. *When were playing-cards invented?*—Cards are of ancient date in India and China, but differing from those now in use. The present kind of playing-cards became known in Italy in 1379, and soon afterwards spread over Europe.

93. *What was the ‘Biblia Pauperum?’*—It was a species of Bible composed of pictures from wood-engravings, printed for the use of those who could not read. The name, *Biblia Pauperum*, signifies ‘Bible for the Poor.’ These picture-bibles were perhaps the very *first* books that were printed. Some are still preserved as curiosities.

94. *Who was Thomas Bewick?*—He was a celebrated wood-engraver at Newcastle-on-Tyne, born 1753, who revived this ingenious art, and executed engravings of animals with wonderful fidelity. The books on natural history which he illustrated are much prized. He died 1828.

95. *Who was Sir Robert Strange?*—He was an eminent copperplate engraver, born in Orkney 1721. In consequence of having engaged in the rebellion of 1745 in Scotland, he went to France, where he acquired great fame for his fine pictorial engravings. Latterly, he returned to England, was knighted by George III., and died 1792. Strange’s engravings of pictures by the great masters are now highly valued.

Architecture.

96. *What is Architecture?*—It is the art of building, and is of various kinds—such as civil, military, and ecclesiastical.

97. *Is architecture an ancient art?*—Yes : it was practised by very ancient nations, as is seen by remarkable remains in Assyria, Egypt, and elsewhere.

98. *What is meant by 'Cyclopean' architecture?*—It is a name ordinarily applied to walls of great antiquity built of huge blocks of stone without cement, from a notion that they were the work of the fabled Cyclopes, or one-eyed giants, mentioned by Homer. Cyclopean walls are found in various parts of the world, and antiquaries are at a loss to say by whom they were executed. They date at least 1000 years B.C.

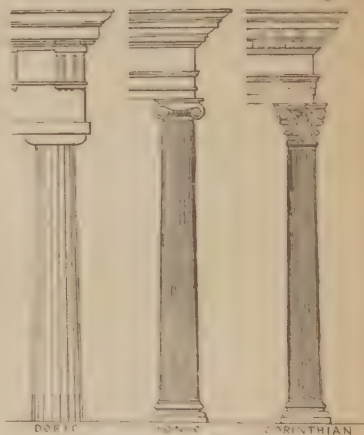
99. *From whom did the Greeks acquire a knowledge of architecture?*—From the Assyrians and Egyptians, on whose forms and styles they greatly improved.

100. *Into how many styles is Grecian architecture divided?*—Into

three—the Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian. Of these the Doric is the oldest and most simple, while the Corinthian is the most florid and ornamental.

101. *To what was the cultivation of Greek architecture due?*—To the encouragement given to the building of temples for the gods, for which this species of architecture was best suited—being elegant, formal, massive, and producing a grand effect in white marble, of which the buildings were chiefly constructed.

102. *When was Greek architecture in perfection?*—From about 650 to 300 B.C. The most noted of the Greek architects was



Styles of Architecture.

Phidias, in the age of Pericles ; and the most magnificent of his structures was the Parthenon at Athens.

103. *Were the Greeks acquainted with the principle of the Arch ?*—It is thought that they could not be ignorant of the arch, for it was employed by the Egyptians and Assyrians ; but they did not practically adopt it. In no Grecian building were there any arches.

104. *What were Caryatides ?*—They were figures of females which, in place of columns, supported entablatures or roofs of buildings. They take their name (according to Greek tradition) from the women of Caryæ, who were made captives after the battle of Thermopylæ, for having sided with the Persians ; the story being that figures resembling them in costume, styled *Caryatides*, were, as an indignity, introduced as columns by Praxiteles and other Athenian artists.



Caryatides.

105. *What was the character of Roman architecture ?*—That of Greek models, with Tuscan and Composite. It attained to great magnificence in the age of Augustus, but degenerated and decayed under the lower empire.

106. *Did the Romans adopt the arch in architecture ?*—Yes ; they employed it in their bridges, aqueducts, and other structures, and from them the knowledge of it was communicated to Western Europe.

107. *Who was Vitruvius ?*—He was a celebrated Roman writer on architecture, and flourished about 30 B.C. He wrote an elaborate work on architecture—*De Architecturâ*—which remains an important authority on the subject.

108. *What was a Basilica ?*—Basilica is the Latin form of the Greek *Basilike*, ‘belonging to a king ;’ the term was originally applied to the court where the king or chief-magistrate administered justice.

109. *Describe a Roman basilica.*—It consisted of a long hall, with side-aisles ; these side-aisles being separated from the central space by pillars supporting the roof. At the further end, opposite the entrance, was a raised platform, with seats for the judges, to accommodate which there was sometimes a rounded space projecting from the end, called the *apse*.

110. *What did the Roman basilicas generally become ?*—On the introduction of Christianity, they were generally transformed into churches. The apse became the choir or site of the altar, and the central open space for the worshippers was

called the *nave*, a term taken from *navis*, Latin for a ship. Thus, the rudimentary type of modern cathedrals was the Roman basilica, or court of justice.

111. *What were the kinds of architecture which followed the Greek and Roman?*—The Byzantine, Saracenic, Gothic, Renaissance, and other kinds, according to national tastes.

112. *Mention a characteristic of Byzantine art.*—One of its main peculiarities was an adaptation to Christian, as opposed to heathen, wants; for example, the Byzantine architects, about the commencement of the 6th century, began to construct churches expressly for Christian worship. These buildings are characterised by the use of the dome in their roofs, and by splendid mosaic work.

113. *Mention a grand specimen of Byzantine architecture.*—The church of St Sophia at Constantinople, completed 537 A.D. St Mark's, at Venice, a creation of the middle ages, is also considered a pure specimen.

114. *Mention a characteristic of Saracenic architecture.*—A remarkable feature consists in arches resembling a horse-shoe, or wider above than below. The Saracenic style is invariably used in Mohammedan mosques, and a beautiful example is found in the Alhambra, the palace-fortress of the Moors in Granada.

115. *What is Gothic architecture?*—Under this title are comprised the various styles of architecture which prevailed in Western Europe during the middle ages till the revival of classic architecture in the 16th century. In the Gothic was perfected the structure of the cathedral, which was usually shaped like a cross.



Gothic Cathedral, Winchester.

116. *Describe the parts in a Gothic cathedral?*—The central part forming the limb of the cross, was the nave, the projecting parts at the sides were the transepts, and the extension of the nave beyond the transepts formed the choir or chancel.

117. *What was the form of the arch in Gothic architecture?*—Till about 1150 the semicircular form (or Norman style) was used; thereafter the arch was pointed, but in different degrees. The early English Gothic is called the first pointed style, of which the most perfect example is Salisbury Cathedral, finished about 1260.

118. *Mention a characteristic feature of the Norman variety of the Gothic.*—The leading feature was the rounded arch. From a general misapprehension, this style has sometimes been called the *Saxon*. It is now known that such specimens as existed among the Anglo-Saxons, previous to the Conquest, were copied from designs in Normandy.

119. *What is Elizabethan architecture?*—It is a mixed style which sprung up on the decline of Gothic architecture. It is chiefly exemplified in mansions of the nobility erected in the reigns of Elizabeth and James I., and is characterised by oriel windows, pointed gables, and fanciful spires. The Tudor style preceded the Elizabethan.

120. *What was the Renaissance?*—The French term *Renaissance* signifies a new birth or renewal, and is applied to the revival of art and literature in Italy and France in the 16th century.

121. *What was characteristic of Renaissance architecture?*—A renewal of the Roman or classical style down to the minutest details. To the Renaissance may be ascribed the best of our modern street-architecture; for instance, that of Paris.

122. *Who was Palladio?*—He was an eminent Italian architect (born 1518, died in 1580), who, after studying the works of Vitruvius, was largely employed in erecting palaces for the nobility at Vicenza, according to the style of the Renaissance. What is now called the Italian style of architecture, adopted for handsome buildings in cities, is based on the finer compositions of Palladio, Alberti, and others.

123. *What is the Scottish style of architecture?*—It is a fanciful style adapted for country mansions, and dates from the 15th and 16th centuries; its characteristics are sharp roofs and gables with picturesque flanking turrets; the style evidently marks a transition from the feudal castle to the modern family residence.

124. *Who was Inigo Jones?*—He was an eminent English architect, who was employed in various undertakings by James I. His best known work is the Banqueting House, Whitehall. Jones has been called the English Palladio; he died at an advanced age, 1653.

125. *Who was Sir Christopher Wren?*—He was the greatest

of all the English architects, and was born in 1632. His grandest work was St Paul's Cathedral, London, begun 1675. Wren was, besides, the architect of many of the fine churches in London. He died 1723, at the advanced age of 91, and was honoured with a public funeral in St Paul's.

126. *What is the inscription on the tomb of Sir Christopher Wren?*—It is, *Si Monumentum quaris, circumspice*—If you wish to see his monument, look around.

127. *Who was Sir William Chambers?*—He was an eminent English architect in the 18th century; his best work is Somerset House—a noble specimen of modern architecture; he wrote a *Treatise on Civil Architecture*, which is a text-book on the subject.—Died 1796.

128. *Who was John Rennie?*—He was an eminent engineer; born, the son of a farmer at Phantassie, East Lothian. 1761. Rennie was particularly distinguished for his grand bridges, two of which, across the Thames, were Waterloo Bridge, finished 1817, and London Bridge, opened 1831. Canova considered Waterloo Bridge to be the finest in the world; and M. Dupin calls it 'a colossal monument worthy of Sesostris and the Cæsars.' Rennie died 1821.

129. *What is a 'ground-plan'?*—It is a horizontal section of a building, as it is to be shaped on the ground. The 'elevation' represents the exterior front of a building as it is to appear to the eye when completed.

130. *Mention some of the parts of a building?*—*Ry bats*, the stones composing the sides of doors and windows; *plinth*, the



Pediment of the Temple of Ægina (restored).

square base for a column or wall; *architrave*, the flat stretch of stone immediately over columns, and extending from one to another; the *frieze*, the flat stone over the architrave; the *entablature* comprises the architrave, frieze, and cornice; *pediment*, the triangular form over the entablature. The triangular space within the pediment is the *tympanum*. In Greek buildings, the tympanum was usually enriched with sculptured figures.

131. *Is Grecian architecture adapted for modern house-building?*

No; It is too precise and formal, and cannot endure the slightest departure from classic models. Hence the introduction of more pliant styles in recent times.

Music.

132. *Was music known to the ancients?*—Yes; the Egyptians, Hebrews, Greeks, and Romans had each a kind of music, adapted for the voice, or for stringed and wind instruments.

133. *What musical instruments had the Hebrews?*—We learn from the Scriptures that they had trumpets, shawms, harps, and cymbals; the shawm was a wind instrument resembling a modern clarionet.

134. *What is the Gregorian Chant?*—It is the name given to certain choral melodies introduced into the service of the early Christian church by Pope Gregory the Great, who flourished towards the end of the 6th century. In this and other respects Gregory was the first great improver of church-music.

135. *What is the ‘Dies Iræ?’*—It is a celebrated Latin hymn, sung in the services of the Roman Catholic Church, and is generally known by the first two words *Dies Iræ*, signifying ‘Day of wrath.’ It is of mediæval composition, and its author is doubtful; though Thomas of Celano (died 1255) has probably the best claim to the honour.

136. *Describe the nature of the ‘Dies Iræ.’*—It is a hymn or poem on the Last Judgment; and on account of the solemn grandeur of the ideas which it brings before the mind, and emotions it is fitted to excite, it is well adapted for the musical part of divine service.

137. *What is the ‘Stabat Mater?’*—It is a very sublime Latin hymn, which is sung in the services of the Roman Catholic Church in Holy-Week. The author is unknown, but many modern musical composers have employed their talents on this beautiful piece.

138. *Why has the hymn ‘Stabat Mater’ been so called?*—Because it begins with these two words—*stabat*, stood, and *mater*, mother. The following are the first three lines—

‘*Stabat mater dolorosa,
Juxta crucem lachrymosa,
Dum pendebat filius*’—

which may be translated, ‘The afflicted and weeping mother stood by the cross on which was hanging her son.’

139. *Who have been the great musical composers of modern times?*—They have been principally Germans—Bach, Handel, Haydn, Mozart, Beethoven, Weber, and others. Handel, born 1684, spent most of his life in England, and was perhaps

the greatest of all musical composers ; his most famous compositions are *Israel in Egypt* and the *Messiah*.—Died 1759.

140. *What is an Oratorio?*—It is a composition of sacred music ; the term being from the Latin word *oratorium*, an oratory or cell for prayer—the place where such sacred compositions were originally performed. The music consists of recitatives, airs, duets, trios, quartetts, and choruses, accompanied with instruments. Handel's *Israel* and *Messiah*, Mendelssohn's *Elijah* and *St Paul*, and Haydn's *Creation* are the grandest specimens of this species of composition.



Handel.

141. *What is an Italian 'Opera'?*—It is a musical drama—a play sung throughout by the actors ; the music in such compositions is designed to evoke emotions characteristic of the different parts—sorrow, joy, anger, and other sentiments, expressed in musical sounds.

142. *What composers are at the head of the Italian opera?*—Rossini (born 1792), who wrote *Semiramide*, *Guillaume Tell*, and *Il Barbiere di Siviglia* ; Bellini (died 1835), the composer of *Norma*, *I Puritani*, and *La Sonnambula* ; and Donizetti and Verdi.

143. *Who was Mendelssohn?*—Felix Mendelssohn (born 1809, died 1847), was a young German musical composer of great eminence ; besides his splendid sonatas and concertos, he composed some fine tunes for lyrics—the best known of these being the air, *O wert thou in the Caudl Blast*, adapted to the words of Robert Burns.

144. *Who was Meyerbeer?*—He was an eminent German musical composer, born 1794. His best known operas are the *Huguenots*, *Robert le Diable*, the *Prophète*, and *L'Africaine*.—Died 1864.

145. *What is a Pibroch?*—It is a piece played on the Highland bagpipe ; a pibroch illustrative of a battle is supposed to embrace the cries of defiance, the onset, the shouts of victory, and the wail for the dead and dying.

146. *What is an 'Anthem'?*—A species of composition peculiarly English, and introduced into the church after the Reformation. The words are taken from Scripture, and the music may be for solo, sol, or chorus, or a combination. The

term anthem is sometimes loosely applied to the national hymn, *God Save the Queen*.

147. *Who was the author of the English national anthem?*—The author of the words of *God Save the King* (or Queen) was Dr Henry Carey, born in London about 1696, and died 1743. The composition was in honour of a birthday of George II. The words of the anthem have undergone some changes since. The music was by Dr John Bull.

148. *What is Rule Britannia?*—It is the name of a noble national hymn, the words of which first appeared (1740) in the masque of *Alfred*, the joint production of James Thomson, author of *The Seasons*, and David Mallet. Whether Thomson or Mallet was the author, is not quite settled. The music is by Dr Arne, an eminent English musical composer (died 1778).

149. *What is Yankee Doodle?*—That is the name of an air, adopted as a national tune by the United States. The words are mere doggerel. *Yankee Doodle* was composed by Dr Shackburg, a physician in the British army in America, about 1755, and palmed off by him as a celebrated air on a body of American militia.

150. *What is the Marseillaise?*—It is a French revolutionary song or hymn, the words and music of which were composed by Rouget de Lisle, an officer of artillery at Strasbourg, in 1792. In July that year it was introduced into Paris, when the young men of Marseille were summoned to the capital; taking its name from them, it became exceedingly popular among all classes of revolutionists.

151. *What is the Ranz des Vaches?*—It is the French name of a class of wild and simple airs, played on the kuh-horn, and sung by the herdsmen in the Alpine parts of Switzerland, in driving the cattle to pasture.

152. *What is meant by 'national music?'*—It is that which grows up with certain national peculiarities of musical structure; thus the Italians, Germans, French, Irish, Scots, and Welsh, have each a distinct music. The English, however, scarcely possess a music distinguishable by peculiar national qualities.

153. *What is the nature of Scottish music?*—It is simple, partly plaintive and partly lively, adapted for lyrical compositions, and characterised by the infrequent use of semitones. Many of the Scottish airs are several centuries old; but few of their authors are known. With from time to time new words, they form a rich national inheritance enjoyed freely by successive generations.

The British Constitution— Jurisprudence.

1. *What is the nature of the British government?*—It is a limited monarchy, with a hereditary sovereign, who reigns according to certain restrictions prescribed by the constitution. In its present form, the constitution dates from the Revolution Settlement, 1689.

2. *What is the 'Cabinet?'*—It consists of a number of ministers, who are intrusted by the sovereign with the executive part of the government—the sovereign (whether king or queen) ruling only through them and by their advice. All executive acts proceed in the name of the sovereign.

3. *What regulates the sovereign in the choice of ministers?*—The sovereign selects or employs only such statesmen to act as ministers as possess the confidence of the two houses of parliament. Usually, the process of selection is left to one termed *prime minister*, and no one can long act as prime minister who cannot ensure majorities in parliament to carry government measures.

4. *Does government, then, rest substantially with the Houses of Parliament?*—It does; and chiefly with the House of Commons, which originates and finally determines all measures for granting supplies of money to carry on public affairs.

5. *What ensues when the prime minister fails to secure majorities in voting money bills or other important measures?*—Either the ministry must be dismissed, and a new ministry appointed, or the sovereign must dissolve the House of Commons, and cause a new one to be elected.

6. *What is the Privy Council?*—It is an assembly of advisers on matters of state appointed by the sovereign, and is composed principally of the cabinet ministers, along with certain judges, members of the nobility, and commoners. Immediately on the decease of the sovereign, the Privy Council proclaims the successor.

7. *What are 'orders in council?'*—They are orders having the effect of law, which the Privy Council is authorised by statutes to issue in cases of national emergency.

8. *What is the Nobility?*—The nobility and peerage are a body of individuals raised by rank, dignity, and title above the mass of the people or commoners.

9. *In whom lies the right of creating peers?*—The right of

creating peers is in the sovereign, who is 'the fountain of honour' in the constitution ; but in this, as in other matters, the sovereign acts only by the advice of the ministry.

10. *On what ground are persons raised to the peerage?*—They are raised to the peerage for distinguished public services. The aristocracy, therefore, is constantly receiving accessions from the people, while the people are as constantly absorbing back into their ranks the junior branches of the nobility and their descendants.

11. *How many ranks are there in the peerage?*—Five ; namely, Baron, Viscount, Earl, Marquis, and Duke, which is the highest. Peers are raised from lower to higher ranks—still, however, retaining the lower titles and dignities.

12. *Is the peerage hereditary?*—Yes ; rank and title, along with family landed possessions, are inherited by the eldest surviving son according to the rule of primogeniture—a term equivalent to 'first born'—unless there be some special provision to the contrary.

13. *Mention an effect of primogeniture?*—One of its effects is to give great stability to certain families of wealth and distinction, who from generation to generation impart the quality of steadiness and permanence to the national institutions.

14. *Do the younger children of a peer enjoy titles by inheritance?*—They do not ; in law, they are commoners ; but usually they enjoy certain titles by courtesy. Thus, the eldest son of a duke is called by his father's second title, until he succeeds to the family honours, and the other sons are called Lords by courtesy.

15. *What are the national distinctions in the peerage?*—There are English, Scotch, and Irish peers, also peers of Great Britain, and peers of the United Kingdom. These distinctions arise out of historical circumstances, and have no relation to place of birth ; for example, an Englishman or Scotsman may be an Irish peer, and an Irishman may be a peer of Great Britain.

16. *Have these various peers equal parliamentary privileges?*—No ; English peers, and peers of Great Britain and of the United Kingdom have a seat in the House of Lords. The Scots peers elect sixteen of their number to the House of Lords ; and a new election of them takes place every parliament. The Irish peers, elect twenty-eight of their number to the House of Lords, and they sit for life.

17. *Can peers be representatives in the House of Commons?*—Only members of the peerage of Ireland can be so ; besides being represented in the Lords, they can be representatives

for English boroughs or counties in the Commons. For example, Lord Palmerston, who belonged to the peerage of Ireland, sat in the Commons for an English borough. Sons of noblemen with courtesy titles are eligible as members of the House of Commons.

18. *What is the number of members in the House of Commons?*—The number is 670, who are partly elected by counties and partly by boroughs; several are also elected by universities. No one can vote at elections unless his name has been previously placed on a public register.

19. *What is the duration of parliament?*—The existence of a parliament is limited to seven years; but few parliaments last so long. A session of parliament is the period it sits annually, and ordinarily extends from February till July.

20. *What is the number of members in the House of Lords?*—The number is above 500, consisting of certain royal princes, peers who enjoy the right by heritage, the Scotch and Irish representative peers, and certain lords spiritual.

21. *Are there not several Scots peers in the House of Lords, besides the sixteen representative peers?*—Yes; but only because they are at the same time peers of England, Great Britain, or the United Kingdom. For example, the Duke of Buccleuch sits in the Lords as Earl of Doncaster, in the peerage of England.

22. *What are lords spiritual?*—They are the archbishops and bishops of the Church of England. These may be described as an elective nobility, though they are not peers.

23. *What is the number of lords spiritual in the House of Lords?*—The number is 26. The 2 archbishops and the bishops of London, Durham, and Winchester, always have seats; the Bishop of Sodor and Man never sits; and 21 of the other 25 bishops enjoy the privilege by seniority. Till 1871, 1 Irish archbishop and 3 Irish bishops had seats in the House.

24. *Why is the Bishop of the Isle of Man called 'Bishop of Sodor and Man'?*—The term Sodor is an abbreviation of *Sodorenses*, the Latinised form of *Sudoreys*, the bishopric of which was once associated with that of Man. These *Sudoreys* were the Hebrides, or Southern Islands—so called to distinguish them from the Orkney or Northern Islands. As the Hebrides are now included in the ecclesiastical system of Scotland, the term Sodor, as far as regards its original meaning, is merely titular.

25. *Who act as chairmen in the Houses of Parliament?*—The Lord Chancellor (who by present usage must have been a distinguished lawyer) presides in the House of Lords. The

House of Commons elects one of its members to preside, and he is styled 'the Speaker.'

26. *What is meant by the 'woolsack'?*—The woolsack is the seat of the Lord Chancellor in the House of Lords; it consists of a large bag of wool covered with red cloth, but though fashioned like a seat, is without back or arms. The woolsack is said to have had its origin in the circumstance of wool being anciently a staple article of produce in England.

27. *How does a proposed measure become law?*—The measure is first in the form of a 'bill,' which must pass or be sanctioned by the two Houses of Parliament, and also receive the royal assent, before it becomes law. When so passed and assented to, the measure is called 'an Act of Parliament,' or statute.

28. *What are the means provided by the constitution for a redress of grievances?*—The constitution gives the right of petitioning parliament for the abolition or amendment of any objectionable law—which right includes the important privilege of assembling peacefully to consider and draw up the petition. This is deemed one of the great bulwarks of civil liberty in the British dominions.

29. *Does government interfere in elections?*—No; government, and all government officials whatsoever, usually abstain from interfering in elections, by which great liberty of action ensues. This is one of the most estimable points in the constitution. Government similarly abstains from attempts to regulate public opinion on matters of general policy—a circumstance which contrasts favourably with the practices that prevail in some continental countries.

30. *Is monarchy esteemed as a national institution?*—It is exceedingly so, for several considerations—1. Its great antiquity and identification with national traditions; 2. A knowledge of the disasters and contentions which ensued on its temporary overthrow in 1649; 3. A belief that, as now constitutionally established, it is best adapted to secure public liberty, along with exemption from the exasperations and conflicts of party; and, 4. A deep-seated sentiment of loyalty and affectionate regard for the sovereign who now occupies the throne.



Crown.

31. *What is a 'Coronation'?*—It is a ceremony in which the sovereign is solemnly invested with a crown, significant of royal dignity and authority.

32. *How is the term, 'the crown,' figuratively employed?*—The term is often used to signify the royal authority. Thus, people speak of 'crown lawyers'—meaning lawyers who act for the sovereign—and also of 'appointments by the crown.'

33. *What is the scale of precedence?*—It is a scale established by statutes and ancient usage determining the social position of every individual from the sovereign downwards—an arrangement by which all contests as to precedence are avoided on the occasion of state or public ceremonials. The number of ranks in the scale of precedence is upwards of a hundred; in this scale wealth is not reckoned.

34. *Who are entitled to the distinction of Esquire?*—The sons of the nobility and their eldest sons, the eldest sons of knights and their eldest sons, judges, justices of peace, commissioned officers, barristers, persons so styled in writs of the crown, and some others. 'Esquire' has latterly been so much abused that it has lost its distinctive value. The term is from the French *escuyer*, a shield-bearer (Lat. *scutum*, a shield), and was applied to the armour-bearer of a knight.

35. *What is the constitution of the Church of England?*—It is a Protestant Episcopacy, comprehending three orders of clergy—bishops, priests, and deacons: the whole under the Queen as 'head of the church.' The Archbishop of Canterbury is styled Primate of all England, and has the privilege of placing the crown on the head of the sovereign at coronations.

36. *How is the Church of England supported?*—It is established by law as the religion of the state, and is supported by a variety of endowments, for the most part of old date.

37. *What is a 'congé d'élire?'*—It is an old French phrase, signifying 'leave or permission to elect.' It is the name given in England to a warrant from the sovereign, permitting the dean and chapter of a cathedral to elect a bishop to a vacant see. The *congé d'élire*, however, is accompanied with a nissive, pointing out who should be elected, which it is illegal to disregard.

38. *What is 'Convocation,' as applied to the Church of England?*—Convocation is the name given to an assembly of the clergy, which occasionally meets to discuss ecclesiastical questions. This meeting, however, possesses no power of legislation; for the church is entirely regulated by parliament, while its discipline belongs to a class of tribunals called the ecclesiastical courts.

39. *What is meant by 'Holy Orders?'*—It is a phrase in

use among members of the Church of Rome and Church of England, and denotes entrance into the order of the priesthood. Holy orders are conferred by a solemn act of ordination by bishops, and invest the recipient with a sacred character distinctly apart from the laity.

40. *Is the sacred character of Holy Orders indelible?*—It is so in ordinary circumstances. In the Church of Rome, the pope has the power of removing the sacred character of a priest and restoring him to the laity; in the Church of England, an act of parliament would be required to do so. Accordingly, persons who have entered holy orders in England are in point of law ineligible for various civil offices, including that of a representative in the House of Commons.

41. *What is meant by 'benefit of clergy'?*—It is an expression referring to a former state of the law in England, when a clergyman had the benefit of being exempted from prosecution for alleged crimes and offences before any civil tribunal. In course of time, laymen who could read claimed and were allowed the like privilege. 'Benefit of clergy' was finally abolished in the reign of George IV.

42. *What is the constitution of the Church of Scotland?*—It is a Protestant Presbyterianism, established in place of Episcopacy in 1690; but with certain modifications, it was the form of Protestantism instituted at the Reformation in Scotland. Its ministers are equal in rank, and are assisted in maintaining church-discipline by lay-elders.

43. *How is the Church of Scotland supported?*—It is, like the Church of England, maintained by endowments, mostly of old date—certain landowners in each parish being under a legal obligation to pay a specified stipend to the minister out of church-property in their possession.

44. *What is the General Assembly?*—It is the highest church-court in Scotland, composed of a certain number of representative ministers and elders, and meets once a year in Edinburgh. The crown appoints a president, called a Royal Commissioner, but he takes no part in the proceedings; the acting president is one of the representative ministers, elected by votes of the members, and styled Moderator.

45. *What are Dissenters?*—They are bodies of Christians who dissent from the form of government and doctrines of an Established Church. All dissenters, of whatever denomination, enjoy entire freedom of opinion, and conduct divine service according to the forms of which they approve.

46. *What are Seceders?*—They are certain religious bodies in Scotland who have seceded or separated from the Established Church, and are legally in the position of dissenters. The chief seceding body is the *United Presbyterian*, which has been formed by the amalgamation of different sects at different times. The *Free Church*, constituted in 1843, declines in theory to consider itself a 'seceding' body—designating the event of 1843 not a secession but a *disruption*.

47. *What is Erastianism?*—It is a term of reproach, signifying the condition of a church which is under the control of the state. It is derived from Thomas Erastus, a learned Swiss theologian (died 1583), whose writings on this subject, however, have been greatly misapprehended.

48. *What is international law?*—It is a generally understood body of principles which regulate the intercourse between different states, and have been expounded by various writers.

49. *Mention some authorities on international law.* Puffendorf, Grotius, and Vattel are the principal; Vattel, a native of Neufchatel (died 1767) is the chief authority; his famed work on the subject is his *Droit des Gens* (Law of Nations).

50. *What is a 'casus belli'?*—It is an act of hostility on the part of one nation against another, sufficient to give occasion for a proclamation of war.

51. *What are belligerents?*—They are states which are carrying on war against each other, according to the ordinary recognised principles of warfare; the term is from the Latin *belligero*, I wage war.

52. *What is the right of blockade?*—It is a right possessed by each belligerent to close the ports of the enemy against traffic with neutral powers; but to be effectual, the ports must be actually closed and guarded by war-vessels, not merely declared to be so.

53. *What is 'contraband of war'?*—It consists of warlike materials supplied by neutrals to a belligerent, contrary to the conditions which should regulate national intercourse in a time of war.

54. *What are prisoners of war?*—They are soldiers and others taken captive in war; according to civilised usages, the lives of prisoners of war are spared on surrendering, and the captives are restored to liberty on the occurrence of peace.

55. *What is 'martial law'?*—It is the law of military force, which is brought into operation when, for some reason, the civil law is suspended. A town in such a state of riotous

disorder as to be beyond the control of the civil authorities, may be legally placed for a time under martial law.

56. *What was the Roman civil law?*—It was a great body of Roman laws affecting rights and relationships among individuals, which was digested into a code by Justinian about the middle of the 6th century.¹

57. *In what language was the code of Justinian drawn up?*—The whole was written in Latin, and now forms a huge volume, under the title *Corpus Juris Civilis* (Body of Civil Law). After being lost during the commotions of the middle ages, a solitary copy of this great digest was found at Amalfi, in Italy, 1137, and was forthwith studied by modern nations.

58. *Did many modern nations embrace the Roman civil law?*—Yes; it became the basis of municipal law in most European countries—some adopting it more than others.

59. *Have continental nations adhered to the Roman law?*—They have done so only to a limited extent. It has been generally superseded by an entirely new digest, called the *Code Napoleon*, framed by orders of Napoleon Bonaparte, between 1803 and 1808. A number of the provisions of the *Code Napoleon*, however, are drawn from the Roman law.

60. *What was the 'Canon Law'?*—It was a body of laws and regulations affecting the Roman Catholic Church, and originated in ecclesiastical decrees from the beginning of the 4th to the end of the 12th century.

61. *Of what did the canon law treat?*—It treated of benefices, the lives and conversation of clergymen, matrimony, divorces, and other matters falling within the scope of church-discipline.

62. *Is the Canon Law still in operation?*—Yes; in Roman Catholic countries, though modified by modern legislation, and by 'concordats' or agreements with the pope.

63. *What kind of law prevails in the United Kingdom?*—It is law of a very miscellaneous kind; England and Ireland have nearly one species of law, and Scotland has another; but a number of statutes apply to the three countries.

64. *Explain the nature of the English law.*—It consists mainly of statutes passed from time to time by the legislature, and of what is called 'common law'—that is, certain rules of old standing, as expounded by legal authorities. But to these two varieties is added a species of canon law, drawn from the ancient ecclesiastical law in use before the Reformation.

¹ See *Historical Questions*, p. 62.

65. *We hear of 'law and equity;' what is meant by 'equity?'*—By 'equity' is signified those principles of justice which are not reached by any statute or rule of common law. Equity is partly supplemental to the statute law, partly corrective. From effect of time and precedent, its principles became fixed laws themselves, and till 1875 were administered in equity courts quite distinct from the common-law courts.

66. *What are the supreme law courts of England?*—The Supreme Court of Judicature of England comprises the High Court of Justice, and the Court of Appeal.

67. *How many divisions are there in the High Court of Justice?*—Three; namely, Chancery, Queen's Bench, and the Probate, Divorce, and Admiralty Division. Formerly there were also the divisions of Queen's Bench and Common Pleas.

68. *What is meant by 'oyer and terminer?'*—*Oyer and terminer* are words from the French, signifying 'to hear and determine;' the phrase is usually applied to certain special courts held for the purpose of trying persons accused of seditious and treasonable practices.

69. *Who was Sir Thomas Littleton?*—He was one of the judges of the Court of Common Pleas, 1466, and was celebrated as the author of a work on *Tenures*, useful for lawyers.

70. *Who was Sir Edward Coke?*—He was an eminent lawyer in the reigns of James I. and Charles I., who filled the office of Chief-Justice of the Court of King's Bench; he is remembered as the author of a minute and laborious Commentary on the work of Sir Thomas Littleton, usually styled *Coke upon Littleton*, which remains a leading authority on English law.

71. *Who was Sir William Blackstone?*—He was a learned judge in the Court of Common Pleas, who died 1780. Blackstone is best known for his *Commentaries on the Laws of England*, a work first published in 1765, which, from its tasteful and popular style, has been often reprinted.

72. *What law prevails in the British colonies?*—Where the colonies are of British origin, the law and legal usages of England prevail. Where the colonies or dependencies are of foreign origin, the law of the original settlers is, by stipulation, for the most part maintained. For example, in the Cape of Good Hope, which was originally a Dutch colony, the old Dutch (or Roman civil) law prevails.

73. *What law prevails in India?*—Several kinds of law are maintained in that great dependency, in order to suit the habits and usages of a mixed population. For the aboriginal Hindus there is the Hindu law; for the Mohammedans the

law of the Koran ; and for British settlers, the law of England. Judges are appointed to administer these diverse laws.

74. *What law prevails in Scotland?*—The old Roman civil law, modified by modern statutes, and a common law of native growth.

75. *Mention a work in which the law of Scotland is embodied.*—The best known work on the subject is Erskine's *Principles of the Law of Scotland*, published in 1754, which remains a valuable text-book.

76. *What is the supreme civil court in Scotland?*—It is the Court of Session, which comprehends jurisdiction in cases of equity as well as law.

77. *What is the supreme court of appeal in the United Kingdom?*—It is the House of Lords, to which cases may be appealed for decision from the chief civil courts in England, Ireland, and Scotland. The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council forms a court of appeal from the colonies and dependencies.

78. *Who appoints the judges in the different courts throughout the United Kingdom?*—Excepting as concerns certain 'duchies palatine,' all judges are appointed by the crown, and hold office for life.

79. *What is a 'duchy palatine?'*—It is a division of country formerly under the distinct government of a duke or other powerful feudal lord. The duchy of Lancaster is an example.

80. *When was the duchy of Cornwall created?*—It was created in 1377, in favour of Edward the Black Prince, and by act of parliament, remains under the jurisdiction of the Prince of Wales, as hereditary Duke of Cornwall, who appoints the judges in the duchy, and draws from it certain revenues.

81. *What is the legal position of the duchy of Lancaster?*—That duchy was forfeited to the crown in the reign of Edward IV. The crown now appoints a Chancellor to the duchy as a removable minister, by whom an attorney-general, and other functionaries are nominated with equity jurisdiction.

82. *What is 'trial by jury?'*—It is the trial of alleged criminals by a jury or body of individuals impartially selected, according to prescribed forms, from the community. The duty of the jury consists in determining whether the facts charged against a prisoner are proved.

83. *Is trial by jury of ancient origin?*—Yes ; it is an Anglo-Saxon institution, and forms an important safeguard against arbitrary authority.

84. *Is trial by jury conducted uniformly in the United Kingdom?*—No; in England and Ireland, a jury on a criminal case consists of 12 individuals, who must be unanimous in their decisions. In Scotland, the jury consists of 15, a majority of whom decides.

85. *What is the 'grand jury?'*—It is a body of individuals summoned by sheriffs in different localities to determine whether cases of alleged crime may be brought to trial. The institution of grand jury, however, does not exist in Scotland, where its duties as respects criminal charges are performed by a public prosecutor, styled Lord Advocate, who is assisted by various 'Deputes.'

86. *Is trial by jury employed in civil cases?*—Yes; it is applied in connection with the chief civil courts in the United Kingdom, principally in relation to questions of damage for alleged injuries.

87. *What are 'Procurators-Fiscal?'*—They are public investigators and prosecutors of crime in Scotland, connected with county and civic jurisdictions, and are subordinate to the Lord Advocate. The term 'fiscal' is from the Latin *fiscus*, signifying the crown exchequer.

88. *What is a diplomatist?*—The term signifies one who conducts negotiations between sovereigns; this duty, formerly assigned to heralds, is now committed to ambassadors and special envoys. The term diplomatist is from *diploma*, which is derived from a Greek word signifying 'double or twofold. Anciently, a folded-up letter was called a diploma, and hence *diplomatist* was applied to one who received a folded paper of instructions.

89. *What are Mercantile Consuls?*—They are officers subordinate to ambassadors, whom the state maintains in foreign countries for the protection of its trade and vindication of the rights of its merchants. A consul is expected to render friendly aid to every subject or citizen of the country for which he acts. A consul is not necessarily a native of the country from which he is deputed.

90. *What is meant by the 'exequatur of a consul?'*—The term *exequatur* ('let him execute') is applied to a written recognition of a consul who has been deputed by a foreign country, and authorises him to execute his assigned duties. This *exequatur* or recognition issues from the crown; in the event of war with the country for which the consul acts, his *exequatur* is withdrawn.

Concluding Miscellaneous Questions.

1. *What is Archæology?*—It is the branch of knowledge embracing objects of ancient art, also ancient languages, manners, inscriptions, books, monuments, and institutions—all, indeed, that can throw light on the early history of the world. The term is from the Greek *archaios*, ancient; and *logos*, a discourse.

2. *Is the study of archæology of modern date?*—It always attracted more or less attention; but it is only in recent times that men of learning have devoted themselves to studies of this kind in a scientific and critical way, either as regards the continents of Asia, Africa, America, and Europe, or the British islands.

3. *What have been the grander objects of archæological inquiry in Northern Africa and Asia?*—The pyramids of Egypt, and the gigantic stone figures of Assyria; regarding these many interesting discoveries have been made in recent times by English and French archæologists.

4. *What is the 'Rosetta stone'?*—It is a celebrated slab of stone of a dark colour found at Rosetta, in Egypt, bearing an inscription in three varieties of character—the ancient hieroglyphic, the popular character of the country, and the Greek.

5. *What has rendered this stone a subject of interest?*—Interest in the Rosetta stone is derived from the fact that its triple inscription afforded a key to hieroglyphics; when the idea was arrived at, that the three inscriptions were repetitions of each other, it of course became easy, through our knowledge of the Greek, to interpret the other two.

6. *Who made this discovery?*—Champollion, an eminent French archæologist; the Rosetta stone is now in the British Museum, and casts from it are common.

7. *What is meant by the 'Stone, Bronze, and Iron Ages'?*—According to the theories of certain archæologists, there was a period in which weapons were made of stone; this was followed by a period in which weapons were of copper;



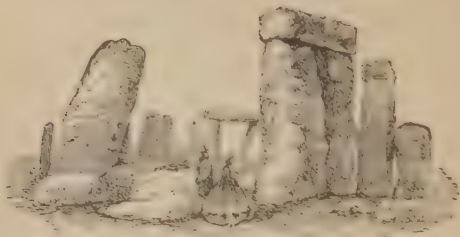
a a, Axe-heads.
b b, Arrow-heads.

and lastly there was a period when weapons of iron came into use.

8. *Where are stone and copper weapons to be seen?*—They may be seen in museums, and consist chiefly of arrow-heads and axes. They are supposed to be very ancient—probably three to four thousand years old.

9. *Mention some of the more notable of the very ancient antiquities in the British Islands.*—Cromlechs, barrows, cairns, Druidic temples, crannoges, and hill-forts—all dating from a period previous to the occupation of Britain by the Romans.

10. *What is a cromlech?*—It consists of several large stones set upright, with one or more stones laid across the top, forming a kind of table. Cromlechs are seen in France as well as England; they are believed to be sepulchral memorials or tombs.



Stonehenge.

11. *What are barrows?*—Barrows are heaped tumuli or mounds of earth, generally conical, and, in some instances, cover interior erections of stones resembling cromlechs. It is thought that open cromlechs had once been so covered up, and that the earth has been washed or worn away in the course of ages.

12. *What are cairns?*—They are large heaps of stones forming conical mounts, and were probably intended to be commemorative of some distinguished hero or remarkable event.

13. *What is the form of Druidic temples?*—They consist of circles of huge stones, with, in some instances, stones of equally large dimensions laid from the top of one upright stone to the top of another. The grandest antiquity of this kind in England is that at Stonehenge, in Wiltshire, a few miles from Salisbury.

14. *Why are these stone circles called Druidic temples?*—Because it has been thought they were used as temples in the pagan worship of the Druids—a priesthood among the early Britons and Gauls. But there is no absolute certainty on the subject.

15. *What were crannoges?*—They were artificial islands, fortified, in lakes, where families lived secure from attack. Remains of these very ancient and curious lake-dwellings are found in Ireland, Scotland, and Switzerland.

16. *What were British hill-forts?*—They were circular or oval intrenchments of earth and stones, erected generally on the tops of hills of moderate elevation, and used as places of defence previous to and at the Roman invasion.

17. *What is the shape of Roman camps?*—They are usually in the form of a square or parallelogram, with several raised mounds or intrenchments and intervening ditches, and they cover a considerable space of ground. They had four entrances, one on each side. One of these entrances, called the *Prætorian Gate*, led to the tent of the commander, which was styled the *Prætorium*.

18. *What are 'Round Towers?'*—They are tall, narrow towers of masonry several stories in height, found chiefly in Ireland. They are believed to date from the 5th to the 12th century, and to have been used as bellfries to churches, as well as safe receptacles for the church vessels in times of civil disorder. Much has been written regarding them.

19. *When were the old castles erected which are now seen in ruins?*—The greater number in England and Scotland were not erected till after the Norman conquest; the feudal keeps or peel-houses on the Border were, for the greater part, erected from the 14th to the 16th century.

20. *What is Heraldry?*—It is the branch of knowledge connected with armorial bearings, with which heralds are presumed to be acquainted. Armorial bearings are of ancient origin, but they acquired a systematised form in England only about the time of Henry III., or end of the 13th century.

21. *What are armorial bearings?*—They are figurative marks of distinction assigned to individuals by certain courts



Round Tower
Downish, Ireland.

appointed by the sovereign—the Heralds' College in England; the College of Arms in Ireland; and the Lyon Court in Scotland. Armorial bearings are usually styled 'coats of arms.'

22. *Of what does a coat of arms consist?*—In the highest class it consists of a shield with supporters, and a crest, along with a motto; but only members of the peerage, or those particularly qualified, are entitled to use supporters.

23. *What is the nature of the shield?*—It is a triangular figure with the point downwards, and its tinctures and emblematic devices are some way significant of the family history of the individual bearing it.

24. *What are the tinctures in heraldry?*—They are as follows: gold, which is termed *or*; silver, termed *argent*; fur, termed *vair*; and red, blue, black, green, and purple, known as *gules*, *azure*, *sable*, *vert*, and *purpure*. The surface of the shield is called 'the field.'

25. *What were the supporters in the royal arms previous to the union of the crowns?*—They were for England two lions; and for Scotland two unicorns.

26. *What were the supporters to the royal arms of Great Britain after the union of the crowns?*—They consisted of a lion on one side, and a unicorn on the other. According to the present legalised usage, the lion occupies the right or dexter side; sometimes, in Scotland, the unicorn is authorisedly placed on the right side, as in judicial seals.



Ancient Royal Arms of Scotland.

27. *What was borne on the shield in the royal arms previous to the union of the crowns?*—In England, the shield bore three lions, *passant* (walking), on a field *or*; in Scotland, one lion, *rampant* (standing on its hind-legs), *gules*, on a field *or*. Scott, in his *Marmion*, alludes to the royal banner of Scotland, on which

'The ruddy lion ramp't in gold.'

28. *How is the royal shield of the United Kingdom now quartered?*—It bears the three lions of England in the first and fourth quarter, the lion of Scotland in the second quarter, and the harp for Ireland in the third quarter—the whole significant of the union of the several countries under one sovereign.

29. *What is Lloyd's?*—It is an establishment at the Royal

Exchange, London, where a body of subscribers receive intelligence concerning shipping, and where the insurance of vessels at sea is undertaken by capitalists engaged in this kind of business, styled *underwriters*. This great marine establishment has agents at nearly all the seaports in the world.

30. *From what does Lloyd's take its name?*—It is named from one Lloyd, who kept a coffee-house in Abchurch Lane in 1710, the business of which was afterwards transferred to the Royal Exchange. The establishment is now purely commercial.

31. *What is 'Numismatics'?*—It is the science which treats of coins and medals; the term is from the Greek *nomisma*, 'money issued by lawful authority'—the root of the word *nomisma* being *nomos*, 'law.'

32. *What is the origin of the word 'pecuniary'?*—It is from the Latin *pecunia*, money; the root of the word *pecunia* was *pecus*, 'cattle'—cattle having constituted the wealth of the early Roman people.

33. *What is the origin of the word 'money'?*—It is from the temple of Juno *Moneta*, in which money was coined by the Romans. *Mint*, or place of coinage, has the same root.

34. *What is meant by 'sterling'?*—It signifies money of the legalised standard coinage of the United Kingdom.

35. *Explain the origin of 'sterling.'*—The term *sterling* is believed to be a corruption of *Easterling*—a person from the continent, and therefore from the east, in relation to England. The *Easterlings* were ingenious artisans who came to England from Germany in the reign of Henry III. to refine the silver money; and the coin they produced was called *Moneta Esterlingorum*—the money of the *Easterlings*.

36. *What is the origin of the word 'cash'?*—The term *cash*, signifying ready money, is from the French word *caisse*, a chest or place in which money is kept. The apartment in a French bank in which cash is paid is called the *caisse*. Such an apartment in an English bank is called the *telling-room*.

37. *What is the origin of the word 'pound' in money?*—The term *pound* was originally employed to signify a pound-weight of silver, which was divided into 20 parts or shillings; and 20s. still continue to be called a pound, although their weight has been gradually so much diminished, that it now takes 66 of them to make a pound-weight.

38. *What is the origin of the word 'shilling'?*—Some connect it with the Swedish *skilja*, to divide; but it is more

probably from a root meaning *to ring*, and so would be 'the ringing coin.'

39. *What is the origin of the word 'guinea'?*—Guinea took its name from the coast of Guinea, in Africa, whence the gold for it was originally brought. The guinea is not now coined, but the term still indicates 21s.

40. *What is the origin of the word 'penny'?*—Apparently connected with *pawn*, a pledge, which comes from the Latin *pannus*, a rag, bit of cloth; at one time the name was used for money in general. The penny is a very old coin in England, and was originally of silver, being the 240th part of a pound-weight; the fourth part of a penny was called by the Anglo-Saxons *feorthing*—hence farthing.

41. *What was a 'groat'?*—It was a silver piece equal in value to fourpence, coined in England until after 1351. The name *groat*, which signifies 'great,' is thought to have been given to it from its value, as compared with a penny.

42. *What is meant by the 'pillar dollar'?*—The pillar dollar is the name familiarly given to the old Spanish dollar in consequence of bearing a representation of two pillars, with the inscription *Plus Ultra*, 'more beyond'—meaning that Spain owned possessions beyond the 'pillars of Hercules,' or mountains at the Straits of Gibraltar. The allusion was to the Spanish American colonies.

43. *What is a 'piece of eight'?*—It was the name once popularly given to the Spanish dollar, in consequence of comprehending eight reals.

44. *What is a cent?*—It is a copper coin of the United States, the hundredth part of a dollar, and is named from the Latin *centum*, a hundred; in value, it is nearly the same as an English half-penny.

45. *What is a rupee?*—It is a coin in use in India, value two shillings; the name is a corruption of the Sanscrit *rāpya*, from *rāpa*, shape, and is said to have been given from the first coins having had the shape or figure of a man impressed on them. A *lac* of rupees is 100,000.

46. *What are 'bills of exchange'?*—They are written obligations to pay certain sums of money at a specified time, and are a ready and convenient means of settling commercial debts. The person who signs a bill, as undertaking the obligation to pay, is called the *acceptor*.

47. *What is meant by 'rate of exchange' between two countries?*—If the merchants of one country have to pay to another country more money than they receive in return, they

experience a corresponding difficulty in buying bills to transmit to their creditors, and the rate of exchange is against them.

48. *Give an example.*—A merchant in America who wishes to send a bill of exchange for £100 to a merchant in England may have to pay £120 to a bank for it. In this case, the excess of £20 is the rate of exchange in favour of England.

49. *What is the 'Stock Exchange'?*—It is a resort in London where brokers buy and sell portions of the government stocks; these stocks are certain parts of the national debt, which are ordinarily spoken of as the *funds*. By these dealings, the claims on the nation are constantly shifting hands.

50. *What are 'consols'?*—The term *consols* is applied to a particular kind of government stock, composed of various stocks (properly different borrowings by government), which have been *consolidated* into one.

51. *What are 'joint-stock undertakings'?*—They are large commercial enterprises, in which a number of persons join together, each putting in a certain amount of money, by taking shares, to commence and carry on the concern. The aggregate amount of the shares forms the 'capital stock' of the company.

52. *What is 'par'?*—Par is the original value of a share. If the share be £10, that sum is par; if, from prospects of high profit, the £10 share sells for £12, then the share is £2 above par; if, from apprehensions of a small profit, it is saleable for only £8, then the share is £2 below par. All that is above par is called *premium*; all that is below is termed *discount*.

53. *What is meant by 'the currency'?*—The currency is the money of various kinds passing from hand to hand. It consists of gold, silver, and copper coins, called the *metallic* currency; and bills of exchange, bank-notes, and other instruments of exchange, known as the *paper* currency.

54. *What is a Bank-note?*—It is the written promise of a bank to pay to the bearer a certain expressed sum in the standard metal currency on demand. If the bank fails to fulfil its promise, the note immediately sinks in value, and may become absolutely worthless. By no law or contrivance can the nominal value of bank-notes be sustained if the holders have not perfect confidence in getting the expressed sum on presenting the notes at the bank where they are issued.

55. *What is 'Political Economy'?*—It is the science which explains the principles of national wealth; the great and illustrious expounder of this science was Adam Smith in his work,

The Wealth of Nations; but only in recent times have the principles of the science been embraced in England, and many countries still reject them.

56. *What is the law of 'demand and supply'?*—It is one of the leading laws or principles of political economy, by which the whole world is furnished with the necessities of life, each person according to his means.

57. *Explain the law of demand and supply.*—If there be a general demand for an article, it will be supplied, merely from the desire for gain. If the demand exceed the supply, prices will rise; if the supply goes beyond the demand, prices will fall. Such, in ordinary circumstances, is the sole principle that regulates prices, and also wages.

58. *What is 'monopoly'?*—Monopoly is a term from the Greek, signifying the sole power of dealing in a particular article; an exclusive right of this kind tends to render the article dealt in not only dear, but of a poor quality.

59. *What is meant by a protective policy in trade?*—It means a system of legal obstruction to the importation of certain goods into a country, in order to give a monopoly to the native producers of such goods—the professed aim of a policy of this nature being to encourage the growth of native manufactures.

60. *What ensues from a protective policy?*—The result is, that the public are compelled to buy dear instead of cheap goods; thus losing money for the presumed advantage of a few, the purchasers are unable to buy as many things as they would otherwise like to do, and, accordingly, trade generally is made to suffer. In plain language, protection in trade is little better than public robbery.

61. *What is 'free trade'?*—It is freedom of import and export, by which trade adjusts itself between different countries, and every one is left 'to buy in the cheapest and sell in the dearest market.' This is now recognised as a sound principle in political economy, and the only one consistent with national advantage.

62. *What is 'contraband trade'?*—It is an irregular trade carried on contrary to law; usually, it consists in introducing goods illegally and secretly into a country, in order that they may escape the duties chargeable upon them. Persons engaged in this clandestine trade are called 'smugglers.'

63. *What is meant by social amelioration?*—It signifies an improvement in the habits, feelings, and condition of the people generally. History points out the progressive stages of social

amelioration—great advances having been lately made, chiefly by means of education in its elementary and higher branches.

64. *What is a College?*—The term *college* is from the Latin *collegium*, signifying a collection or assembly. It is sometimes applied to associations of clergy, lawyers, physicians, and others, but most commonly it means a body of teachers or professors, and sometimes graduates, incorporated for the promotion of certain branches of learning, and who live together in the same building.

65. *What is a University?*—The term *university* is from the Latin *universitas*, in its sense of a corporation. A university may comprehend and have authority over several distinct colleges; and such is frequently the case, as at Oxford, Cambridge, and some other places. The university of France is an institution comprehending all the colleges in that country.

66. *What is meant by a 'learned faculty?'*—It is the term applied to the teachers (as a body) of a particular kind of learning, such as those of law and medicine. The term *faculty* is from the Latin *facultas*, strictly signifying a power of doing anything.

67. *How are the branches of learning in a university classified?*—They are ordinarily classified into four faculties—arts, divinity, law, and medicine.

68. *What branches are comprehended in the faculty of arts?* Latin and Greek languages, Mathematics, Logic, Natural and Moral Philosophy, History, Rhetoric, and Belles-Lettres, Astronomy, and some other branches.

69. *What branches are comprehended in the faculty of divinity?*—Divinity, or Theology; the study of the Scriptures, historical and critical; Hebrew, and, in a general sense, the learning especially required by clergymen.

70. *What branches are comprehended in the faculty of law?*—Classes for instruction in the different kinds of law required by legal practitioners; also medical jurisprudence.

71. *What branches are comprehended in the faculty of medicine?*—Anatomy, Practice of Physic, Clinical Surgery, Pathology, Materia Medica, Botany, Chemistry, and various other departments

72. *What is meant by Rhetoric?*—Rhetoric is a term from the Greek, and signifies the art of speaking with propriety and oratorical effect—the science of eloquence.

73. *What is meant by Belles-Lettres?*—The term *Belles-Lettres* is French, signifying literally *fine or elegant writings*; but it is

commonly applied to the art of literary composition in the different departments of poetry and prose.

74. *What is Pathology?*—A knowledge of the causes and character of diseases ; so called from the Greek *pathos*, suffering, and *logos*, a discourse.

75. *What is Hygiene?*—It is the art of preserving health ; the term is from *Hygieia*, the goddess of health in the Greek mythology.

76. *What is meant by Therapeutics?*—It is from the Greek word *therapeuo*, I cure, and signifies the application of medicines and other means of curing diseases.

77. *What is Surgery?*—The art of healing diseases by instruments, the medical practitioner who does so being called a *surgeon* ; this word surgeon, however, is a contraction of the older term *chirurgion*, which is from two Greek words signifying *hand* and *work*, or work done by the hand.

78. *What is meant by 'clinical,' as applied to surgery and medicine?*—'Clinical' is from a Greek word signifying a bed, and is applied to those branches in the medical art in which instruction is given to students at the bedsides of patients. Hospitals and infirmaries are the great schools of clinical medicine and surgery.

79. *What is Materia Medica?*—It is the branch of instruction which treats of the nature and the action of medicines.

80. *What is meant by Pharmacy?*—It is the art of preparing and dispensing medicines. A book which gives directions for the preparing and compounding medicines is called a *Pharmacopœia*.

81. *What is Medical Jurisprudence?*—It is the application of medical and chemical science to the discovery of the causes of death under circumstances requiring legal investigation. For example—professors of medical jurisprudence are employed to examine the bodies of persons who are supposed to have been murdered by criminal administration of poisons.

82. *What is meant by the phrase 'vis medicatrix naturæ?'*—It signifies the natural power of healing in the animal system ; for example, a cut in the finger will heal through a natural inherent power—the *vis medicatrix naturæ*—and, what we have chiefly to do, in the case of wounds, is to facilitate the operation of this beneficent power in nature.

83. *What is a degree in a college or university?*—The term 'degree' is from the Latin *gradus*, a step, and signifies an advance made by the student in certain branches of learning.

The conferring of degrees is one of the privileges of an incorporated college or university. The degrees best known are those indicated by A.M., master of arts; D.D., doctor of divinity; M.D., doctor of medicine; and LL.D., doctor of laws.

84. *Explain the meaning of the letters LL.D.*—LL.D. stand for *Legum doctor*, doctor of laws, the double L signifying that the word is in the plural—laws, in reference to the two kinds of law, the Civil, and the Canon or Ecclesiastical law. It is now, however, usually given as an honorary degree, or for eminence in science and literature generally, without any special reference to law.

85. *What is engineering?*—It is the art of designing and superintending the execution of large undertakings, such as roads, railways, canals, bridges, piers, docks, and water-works. Usually it is styled civil engineering, to distinguish it from military engineering, and from the making of steam-engines and other machinery.

86. *Mention two celebrated civil engineers in recent times.*—Thomas Telford, originally an operative mason in Dumfriesshire, who rose to distinction as constructor of the Caledonian Canal and other great works of public utility; died 1834. And Robert Stephenson (son of George Stephenson, improver of the locomotive), born 1803, eminent for his various railway works, also for constructing the tubular bridge across the Menai Strait; he died 1859, and was buried by the side of Telford in Westminster Abbey.

87. *What is meant by Æsthetics?*—It signifies the science of the beautiful, applied to painting, sculpture, music, and other fine arts, also poetry and the feelings. The theory of the beautiful has engaged much learned disquisition in ancient and modern times.

88. *What recent French writer has treated of the Beautiful?*—Victor Cousin, who rises to an apprehension of an ideal beauty whose realisation he finds in God—‘God,’ says Cousin, ‘in whom is combined absolute unity with infinite variety, is necessarily the realised ideal of all beauty.’

89. *What are the famed lines of Keats on beauty?*—They are as follows:

‘A thing of beauty is a joy for ever;
Its loveliness increases; it will never
Pass into nothingness.’

90. *What is Cleopatra's Needle?*—An obelisk 68 feet 2 inches high, covered with hieroglyphics, which was brought

from Alexandria and erected on the Thames Embankment in 1878. It is one of two obelisks supposed to have been set up in the reign of Thothmes III., about 1450 B.C., at the temple of Heliopolis, and is one of the oldest monuments out of Egypt. The second one was taken to New York in 1880.

91. *To whom do we owe the most beneficial postal reform?*—To Sir Rowland Hill, born 1795, died 1879. At first a teacher, he in 1837 published a work on *Post-office Reforms*. Penny postage came into existence on Jan. 10, 1840, and in the year 1880—1881, upwards of 1681 millions of letters, post-cards, and newspapers were posted in the United Kingdom.

92. *What are the telephone and the phonograph?*—The telephone, perfected in 1876 by Mr Bell in America, is an instrument which transmits articulate sounds to a distance by means of electricity. The phonograph, invented in 1877 by Mr Edison, an American, records on tinfoil the vibrations of sung or spoken sounds, so that these sounds can be reproduced from the tinfoil record.

93. *Mention the names of modern explorers who have successfully crossed portions of the southern continent of Africa, hitherto unknown.*—Verney Lovett Cameron, who crossed from Bagamoyo on the east coast to the Atlantic coast of Lower Guinea; H. M. Stanley, journalist, who has crossed by way of the Congo from Zanzibar to Embomma; and Major Serpa Pinto, a Portuguese explorer, from Benguela to Natal.

94. *Name the traveller who has for the first time accomplished the North-east Passage.*—Professor Nordenskiöld, who left Sweden in July 1878, and reached Yokohama on Sept. 3, 1879, having sailed round the Siberian coast from Nova Zembla to Behring's Straits, tracing for a distance of 3000 miles a portion of the Arctic Ocean never previously visited by sea-going ships.

95. *Where have rich diamond mines lately been discovered?*—In Griqualand West, South Africa. Diamonds were first found there in 1868; and within ten years stones were obtained to the value of about twelve million pounds.

96. *Name two of the most promising of recent British colonial settlements.*—Manitoba and the North-west Territory, in the Dominion of Canada.

97. *What led to the opening up of these territories?*—The purchase by Canada of the territorial rights of the Hudson's Bay Company. Ere long it was arranged to lay a railway across North America through Canadian territory.

98. *What remarkable railway enterprise was completed in 1869?*—The opening up of railway connection between the Atlantic and Pacific sea-boards of the United States.

99. *How long does the journey from New York to San Francisco require?*—About six days and eleven or twelve hours.

100. *Name the most notable railway tunnels.*—The Mont Cenis tunnel, seven miles long, and the St Gothard tunnel, nine miles long, both carrying railways through the Alps into Italy. The proposed Channel tunnel from England to France would extend for more than twenty miles under the sea.

101. *What is the most remarkable canal?*—That across the Isthmus of Suez, carried to a successful issue by M. de Lesseps, an enterprising Frenchman. It was he also who promoted the scheme for a canal across the Isthmus of Panama, on which work was begun in 1881.

102. *What light bids fair to supersede gas for purposes of public illumination?*—The electric light, procured on a large scale by strong currents from magneto-electric or dynamo-electric machines.

103. *Mention three of the foremost English scientific teachers.*—Mr Darwin, author of the *Origin of Species by Natural Selection*, and many other works; Professor Huxley; and Professor Tyndall.

104. *Name some notable modern poets.*—Besides Lord Tennyson, poet-laureate, there are Robert Browning, A. C. Swinburne, William Morris, Lewis Morris, Dante Gabriel Rossetti, Matthew Arnold, P. J. Bailey; Elizabeth Barrett Browning, Christina Rossetti, Jean Ingelow.

105. *Who is the most eloquent of art critics?*—John Ruskin (born 1819), author of *Modern Painters* and other works.

106. *When was the revised version of the New Testament undertaken?*—In 1870; and the new version of the New Testament was published in 1881.

107. *What was the population of Great Britain at the census of 1891?*—Over thirty-seven millions.

108. *How many inhabitants had London at same date?*—Upwards of four millions two hundred thousand—more by nearly two hundred thousand than Scotland then had.

NOTE.—Extended information on scientific, biographic, and other subjects, will be readily found in *Chambers's Encyclopædia*, a *Dictionary of Universal Knowledge*.

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